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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXX, NUMBER 3

MARCH, 1939

History in Secondary Schools—Why Not Teach It?

RICHARD J. PURCELL

Head, Department of History, Catholic University of America, Washington, D.C.

History is the mother of the social sciences and is the central social subject in colleges and in high schools where the social studies are grouped in a separate department. Through professional training and experience teachers are familiar with the philosophical and psychological methods of teaching history, the economic and social interpretations, and the various mechanisms of conducting classes. Hence this discussion will not venture into these fields, nor will it consider the various helpful definitions of history which master-writers have offered since the days of Herodotus. Its observations will be general. It is hoped that they will be sufficiently pointed and critical to challenge some disagreement, for students of history cannot be expected to agree, certainly not with dogmatic conclusions or interpretations which perforce are personal to some degree. Ideals may be set forth which cannot be approached in practice under present working conditions; but still it is well to have ideals and to hold to them. Indeed most teachers are idealists, or they would cease to be teachers. The writer shall attempt to remain on the ground and offer suggestions that are not too impractical for the current world in which we are living and in which history is being made with convulsive and revolutionary speed.

The teachers of history in high schools should have the ordinary routine of classes, hours and credits (computed on an adding machine and properly tabu-

lated in an official repository), which are associated with a bachelor's or master's degree from a teachers' college or a more renowned classical institution. As few college students escape some courses in education, this would naturally include a certain number of credits in such courses. All this goes without saying. There can be no dissent. After winning the Nobel Prize for outstanding scientific contributions, Dr. Michelson of the University of Chicago is said to have admitted that he lacked the requisite educational courses to teach physics in a local high school. And Samuel Untermyer, an authority on corporation law, is accredited with some doubts as to the likelihood of his passing a current bar examination in New York.

Among sagacious historians and the omniscient compilers of texts used in the high schools, there may be some who would lack the requisite credits in external subjects for a license to teach their own books in a secondary school. This is as it should be, in what some cynics have called our "knowledge-factories." Let them serve their apprenticeships before they become journeymen in our craft or quasi-profession!

It is the degree that counts. Ask any successful, but older teacher who must pack up and take her vacations in summer schools, preferably Teachers' College, Columbia University, if she would impress her educational superiors. This naturally does not infer

that a proper degree cannot indicate an accumulated fund of learning, of knowledge of the subject, and even of ability to think. The ideal teacher must be fortified with more than a trade certificate. Woodrow Wilson—no eminent research-historian, but a marvelous teacher who made political institutions live in his lectures—was accustomed to maintain that, "You can lead a fool to college, but you can't make him think."

Now our ideal teacher must think. She, and it is usually the feminine pronoun that is unconsciously used in reference to a secondary teacher, need not be a genius nor a self-satisfied intellectual. Nor need the teacher be lax in calling the roll, in grading papers, in attending meetings, and in presenting routine reports. She should, however, realize that teachers must think and that they must ponder over the materials of their subject in order to see its possibilities from every angle and appreciate its relationship to kindred sciences and to everyday life. One hesitates to use the word *integrate* lest it appear that he is an educator who thinks that distinction as well as emolument lies in administrative work. The teacher should recognize the position of history in the affairs of men and in the development of mankind.

Assuredly, there is no more fascinating subject to teach the young. And there is no greater opportunity to teach in the broadest sense of the term, over the widest range of time, and across the tremendous movements which have affected men of all races. The teacher of history passes judgment upon the greatest men, upon whole peoples, and upon the social and revolutionary upheavals of the past. In the eyes of the class, she knows almost as much as the printed page of the textbook. And sometimes—she speaks almost as infallibly.

No teacher who knows a good deal about history can be a hack, reciting dates and names in a monotone. She certainly will not be chained to the text, enslaved by an official syllabus, or bound to the old catechism recital of questions and answers which President Andrew White of Cornell University was one of the first to ridicule. She will read critically and between the lines. She will be courageous enough to be free and to be censored only by her prudence, tolerance and innate courtesy. At least this will be her ideal if puritans, politicians and pressure groups will permit. This teacher of history who makes her pupils think and who teaches her pupils rather than merely the subject is a meritorious figure in the community as fully worthy of her hire as any trade unionist. From her desk she may lead American youth along paths of right thinking, of moral righteousness, and of intelligent citizenship.

The ideal teacher of history should read afield. She should read the documents which she discusses. She should have as full a knowledge of the allied sciences

as time permits. She should be acquainted with public affairs. She should have some intimation about how government and politicians actually work. She should not let civics books deceive her as to practical machine politics. She should be human for her subject treats of mankind. She should be tolerant of other peoples and of other views. She should be courageous, and withal prudent if she would retain her position. She should not be a luke-warm soul without views, even pronounced views, but she should not indoctrinate her pupils with her own opinions, at least if she would teach scientific history.

A teacher should not be a mere conformist for the practical advantages of conformity. She should appreciate her subject, understand her position, and be aware of her own limitations. Now let us hope this paragon is properly requited so that she may purchase books, travel in the lands whose history she relates, and belongs to the scholarly associations, national or local, which seek to elevate the standards of her calling.

Show one the teachers of a nation—and especially the masters who profess the social sciences—and you see the nation as it is. Where teachers are free, a nation cannot be fettered. Free teachers, free schools, free press and a free pulpit guarantee the freedom of a nation. A teacher can inculcate patriotism and sound citizenship without stressing objectionable racialism or even worship of the status quo. Every dictator, ancient or contemporary, has feared free schools, free pulpits, and free speech, and all of these are destroyed by authoritarian states. Every dictator would make history unfree, and pervert it to the cause which he dominates.

History is not an easy subject to teach. Even administrators are beginning to realize this, and are less apt than formerly to let any teacher fill in the vacancy in history or English. Nor is the old combination of coaching football and teaching history so prevalent. History well taught is too broad and inclusive to be easily handled, even if it is not so comprehensive as James Harvey Robinson's definition that, "In its amplest meaning history includes every trace and vestige of everything that man has done or thought since he first appeared on earth." It is a long story since the days of the Neanderthal man. Its annals are much longer than conceived by that Anglican prelate who was quite disconcerted on learning that the world did not begin at a certain hour on Friday, October 28, 4004 B.C. Possibly a better, but hardly less inclusive definition is that of Benedetto Croce, a learned Italian historian, who describes the subject as "contemporary thought about the past."

Schools, even in a passing way, cannot teach all history, and pupils should be made aware of this limitation. We tell something about the early dawn, about the Tigris-Euphrates, the Nile, Crete, the

Greek states, the Hellenistic Age, Rome to its reputed fall, the barbarian invaders, the Franks, medieval institutions, the Crusades, the Renaissance, the Protestant revolt, England, Western Europe since 1789, and the Americas. We trace civilization until it culminates in our own land. We treat history not as a science, but from our own point of view and for our own preconceived purposes. The stresses are determined by the locale of the teacher.

An oriental might see the subject quite differently, or a teacher in Eastern or Northern Europe, or one in Hispanic-America who might be interested in Spain in world history. We say little of the Orient; we leave Persia with Darius; we leave the Georgians and Armenians and Assyrians about where Alexander did. After the conquest of Athens by Rome, the Greeks are only immigrants to us. Constantinople is indexed only a few times in the textbook. The Russians and the Slavs in general are left in a no-man's land. We know more about the battle of Tours than about the equally dramatic moment when the Poles, Austrians, and Hungarians stopped the Turk at Vienna.

Our pupils are left with a partisan sympathy for the Greeks not the Persians, Athens not Sparta, Rome not Carthage, the Crusader not the Turk, the English not the French, the reformer not the Church, and so on to the white man not the Indian. In interpretation, history is occidental. To the Reformation, it was Christian. Since the Reformation, it has been largely Protestant. Until very recent days, it has been conservative. Conventional history favors successful rebels, never rebels whom failure makes traitors.

We teach, and I presume with sane reasoning, about the peoples whose civilization has most directly contributed to our own in a sort of hereditary line—the peoples from whom our culture has stemmed. We do not follow Von Ranke's injunction that, "Universal history embraces the events of all nations and times in their connection in so far as these affect each other, and all together form a living totality."

The continuity of history we stress; and we are interested primarily in the evolution of our own civilization, of our own institutions, and of the peoples who gave the original stamp to America in the way of language, culture and religion. In time, this may not be sufficient, as the school-control comes to reflect the desires of forty odd million people whose roots in America do not antedate Grover Cleveland's democracy and whose background is hardly British—even in the wider use of that term. Indeed our own civilization has been revolutionized far more than our smug contemporaries are willing to recognize.

Again, the history teacher should not be too certain of her facts. Evidence in whole fields is so slight that one grasps for straws in writing the annals. Rec-

ords are compiled by the victorious. Charlemagne had a good historiographer, and so did James J. Hill. Again, evidence which passes as good in history would not convict a man of a misdemeanor in an impartial court. Frequently, we know some of the truth, some of the facts; but rarely do historians know all the facts. Nor are all witnesses or even historians as truthful as their almost divine calling should warrant. Froudism is a disease not yet eradicated. Few are the questions, we can answer with a "yes" or a "no." And one need not fall back for an illustration on the Yankee query: "Have you stopped beating your wife?"

Chemistry is the same the world over. Mathematics is bound by no language, race, party or creed. On the other hand, historical interpretation is controlled by many forces, and bent by many winds, sympathies and whims. We recognize that history has unity, that men and nations cannot be isolated, that ideas cannot be kept out by stone walls or dictators' censorships, and that civilization is complex. Yet we cannot in the face of practical difficulties teach it that way. We must break in somewhere, even as Frederick Maitland in his *History of English Law* apologized that, "Such is the unity of all history that anyone who endeavors to tell a piece of it must feel that his first sentence tears a seamless web." Sometimes the unit method accomplishes this beautifully.

Again granted that the facts or the alleged facts are more or less correct, the interpretation of these facts—and this is history teaching—changes, ever changes. You and I do not interpret our history even the ancient and medieval period as we did before the World War. You and I and all about us have changed too greatly. Professor Shotwell of Columbia University has shrewdly noted that, "The historical writing of every age reflects the dominant interests of that period." Every generation, even though new facts have not been determined, re-evaluates the past and its heroes in the light of present interests and concerns. Thomas Jefferson recognized this and also the fact that men and institutions were not too sacred to be criticized when, in 1816, he wrote of the Fathers and the Framers:

Some men look at Constitutions with sanctimonious reverence, and deem them like the Ark of the Covenant—too sacred to be touched. They ascribe to the men of the preceding age a wisdom more than human, and suppose what they did to be beyond amendment. I knew that age well; I belonged to it, and labored with it. It deserved well. . . . It was very like the present, but without the experience of the present; and forty years of experience in government is worth a century of book-reading; and this they would say themselves if they were to rise from the dead.

History must be interpretative. In the words of the erudite Lord Acton, "History should not be a burden on the memory, but an illumination of the soul." As an interpretative subject, it cannot avoid controversy, teachers' oaths to the contrary notwithstanding. To be full and complete, it must include politics and parties and religion. It is a tactful teacher, prudent and learned, who can properly handle controversial subjects in the public schools of this land of liberty where vested interests have had a dominant voice in government and a curious control over schools, and probably more in the small towns than in the urban centers. Loyalist and patriot, Federalist or Jeffersonian Republican, black slavery in the South and white slavery in the northern mills and mines, relations with England, democracy, socialism, separation of Church and State, immigration especially of the Mediterranean peoples, capital and labor, organized labor, the New Deal and the Grand Old Party, and the C.I.O. versus the A. F. of L. It is a clever teacher who can steer a cautious path and avoid charges of politics, partisanship and bigotry. Yet one cannot teach history and avoid controversial issues.

The history of the world and even the history of this country, is to no small degree the story of the conflicts of races, peoples, creeds, political parties, and economic systems. Let us take the Reformation—though the illustration is weakened by an excellent current history thereof written by a non-Catholic and used in Catholic, Methodist and Presbyterian institutions of higher learning—how can a public school teacher satisfy a Catholic, an Anglican and a Scotch-Irish Presbyterian? Here the Jewish student can sit back and enjoy himself. Possibly this can be done without too much personal interpretation and by sending pupils to read denominational accounts. Let me quote Walter Lippmann as an intelligent observer:

If there is a teaching of science, that teaching is by application almost always agnostic. The fundamentalists point this out and they are quite right. The teaching of history, under a so-called non-sectarian policy, is usually in this country a rather diluted Protestant version of history. The Catholics are quite right when they point this out.

One might add that history teaching in the American schools of the period from 1830 to 1850 was a fundamental argument for the establishment of the

parochial school system, and for those Presbyterian and later Lutheran elementary schools which finally failed before the double cost of education. Today in neutral schools, it is difficult to set forth the contributions of the Church and later of the denominations in building civilization or in the development of this country, once far more religious than it is today. Unfortunately religion so dominant in early America is becoming a less active force in the life of our people and in the determination of their social attitudes.

Let the teacher discuss, if her competence will permit, local politics, the reform of civic life, the World Court, pacifism, socialism, communism, or what not. But she should be careful about knowing something about the matter under discussion. She must not advocate anything beyond good American citizenship and, let us say, representative democracy, which some day we may have in the United States—when minorities are represented and when no race or people occupy an unfavorable position of petty martyrdom.

Patriotism that is 100 per cent is good in small doses, but it often leads to excessive nationalism, aggressive foreign policies, persecutions, and purges. The Ku Klux Klan was 100 per cent nationalist and so is Mussolini. Ultra-patriotism can be indoctrinated only by distorted history, by "my country right or wrong," and by a refusal to see that most questions and movements have two sides, neither entirely right. In London, at Marble Arch, agitators can agitate almost without limit. Englishmen are not badly satisfied with themselves or with their institutions; and they can take criticism. Their tolerance may be indifference. It is reflected in their more critical textbooks. Yet England is the most free nation in Europe and the least in danger of "isms."

And history should be critical. In teaching history, one cannot be fearful and burdened with inhibitions; one must be tolerant and human; one should not be parochial and insular; one must not be a hero or an ancestor worshipper; and one must understand the past as far as possible without being controlled by the past. The teacher of history should look forward and interpret the past sanely, in keeping with the changing times of this post war era when the world is moving more rapidly than ever before in the annals of man. In this way, history can serve its purpose in the secondary schools of our country.

Fictions About the Supreme Court

WILLIAM B. GUITTEAU

Columbus, Ohio

The careful sifting and analysis of materials has led modern historians to reject many of the fictions and legends that once filled the pages of what passed for American history. These iconoclasts have challenged colorful inventions with sober facts, and have substituted reality for fancy. No longer do we read that Queen Isabella sacrificed her jewels in order to equip the ships of the great Admiral. The present-day historian finds no trustworthy evidence in support of the glamorous fiction; and his prosaic conclusion is that the crown jewels had probably been pawned long before, in the Moorish wars.¹

Likewise rejected are those grotesque tales invented by Mason L. Weems, our first high-pressure salesman of subscription books. Unfortunately, these fictions were not rejected until after the imaginative Weems had made the youthful Washington appear as an intolerable prig to several generations of American youth. Boys could understand and love a Tom Sawyer, who lied readily as occasion demanded; but they could not appreciate the imaginary youth who, under the most exigent of circumstances, was wholly unable to lie.

At a later period, we had the Whitman-saved-Oregon fiction, which was at last refuted by the Chicago school teacher who had a preference for facts and realities.² Still later, there was the fiction of the gesture of friendship on the part of Russia, in sending her fleets to our harbors in a critical hour of the War between the States.³ And there have been scores of other fanciful tales, often less colorful, but equally imaginative.

Some of these fictions are still circulated as actual fact, notwithstanding that they have been repeatedly disproved. Especially is this the case with regard to certain fictions concerning the position and powers of the Supreme Court of the United States. Of these, the four most often repeated are:

- (1) That neither the framers of the Federal Constitution, nor the state conventions which ratified it, ever intended that the Court should have the power of judicial review.

- (2) That the Constitutional Convention itself, on several occasions, voted down the proposal to grant this power to the Court.
- (3) That the Supreme Court assumed or "usurped" this power, largely as the result of repeated decisions by Chief Justice John Marshall.
- (4) That the Supreme Court can nullify any act of Congress or of the Executive, and therefore has supremacy over the other two departments.

Most of these fictions concerning the Supreme Court are still quite generally accepted as fact by a large portion of the American public. They form the basis for much of the unwarranted criticism that is so frequently offered by newspaper columnists; and they appear, in one form or another, in many of our school textbooks. Fortunately, the writers of these texts have long since discarded such fanciful tales as that of Washington and the cherry tree. Yet they continue to repeat the Supreme Court fictions, the falsity of which is conclusively proved by historical records.

Commonly accepted and repeated as fact by our present-day columnists is the fiction that neither the framers of the Federal Constitution, nor the state conventions which ratified it, ever intended that the Supreme Court should decide on the constitutionality of laws passed by Congress. Arthur Brisbane at one time helped to spread this fiction by stating in his column: "The Supreme Court assumed this power in defiance and defeat of constitutional history and the wishes of the writers of the Constitution."

Nor is this fiction confined to the writings of the columnists; for the diplomat who has recently written such interesting volumes on Jefferson accepts this same fiction and passes it on to his readers. In his *Jefferson in Power*, Mr. Bowers says there was nothing in the discussions of the Constitutional Convention which implied the recognition of the power of the Supreme Court to decide on the constitutionality of laws passed by Congress.⁴ Possibly, since Jefferson was not a member of the Convention, his biographer may not have been interested in reading the somewhat prosaic account of its proceedings as carefully reported by James Madison. Nevertheless, the record stands; and it completely refutes the fiction that has

¹ Edward Channing, *History of the United States*, I (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1919), p. 19.

² William I. Marshall, "Marcus Whitman," *American Historical Association Report*, 1900, (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1901), pp. 221-236.

³ Edward Channing, *History of the United States*, VI, 366-368; also F. A. Golder, "The Russian Fleet and the Civil War," *American Historical Review*, XX, (801-812).

⁴ Claude G. Bowers, *Jefferson in Power* (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1936), p. 169.

been repeated by the biographer, as well as by many a columnist.

The record in Madison's *Debates* shows that the position of the Supreme Court as guardian of the Constitution was the subject of the Convention's debates on June 4, 6, July 21, and August 15, 1787. The report of these debates occupies twenty-five pages in all; and it includes the remarks of fifteen members who participated. Twelve of these speakers explicitly recognized, and stated on the floor of the Convention, that the Supreme Court would have the final decision on the constitutionality of acts of Congress. Three of the speakers were opposed to the exercise of this power by the Court; but not a single member denied that the power would exist under the proposed Constitution.

Madison himself said: "A law violating a Constitution established by the people themselves would be considered by the Judges as null and void."

During the debate on June 4, Elbridge Gerry of Massachusetts declared: "The Judiciary will have a sufficient check against encroachments by their exposition of laws, which involved a power of deciding on their constitutionality."

In the debate on this same day, opposing the proposed council of revision, Rufus King observed: "That the Judges ought to be able to expound the law, as it should come before them, free from the bias of having participated in its formation."

Discussing the same subject on July 21, Luther Martin of Maryland said: "As to the constitutionality of laws, that question will come before the Judges in their official character. Join them with the Executive in the revision, and they will have a double negative."

Nathaniel Gorham of Massachusetts was also against the council of revision on the ground: "That the Judges ought to carry into their exposition of the laws no prepossessions with regard to them."

Many other citations could be added. George Mason of Virginia pointed out that "the Judges could declare an unconstitutional law void." John Rutledge of South Carolina said: "The Judges ought never to give their opinion on a law till it comes before them." And to the same effect were the remarks of James Wilson and Gouverneur Morris of Pennsylvania, Charles Pinckney of South Carolina, Hugh Williamson of North Carolina, and Caleb Strong of Massachusetts.

These speeches and remarks of members of the Constitutional Convention, duly recorded in Madison's *Debates* where anyone can read them,⁵ show conclusively that the recent biographer of Jefferson is quite mistaken in his statement that there was nothing in the discussions of the Convention which

implied the power of the Supreme Court to decide on the constitutionality of congressional acts. The same record absolutely refutes the fanciful statements of popular newspaper columnists on this subject. Why, then, should anyone seek to perpetuate a fiction so completely disproved by the record?

Not only the makers of the Constitution, but the state conventions which ratified it, recognized that the Supreme Court would exercise the power to decide on the constitutionality of laws passed by Congress. The record of the debates in four of these state conventions shows that this power of judicial review was explicitly recognized and acknowledged to exist; and this by delegates who opposed, as well as by those who favored, ratification. In none of the recorded debates of any state convention is there a single challenge of the existence of this power under the proposed Constitution. The record of the proceedings in Elliot's *Debates* speaks for itself.

In the Virginia Convention, Patrick Henry, leading the forces opposed to ratification, said: "The Acts of the Legislature, if unconstitutional, are liable to be opposed by the Judiciary."

John Marshall, urging ratification in the same Convention, declared: "If Congress were to make a law not warranted by any of the powers enumerated, it would be considered by the Judges as an infringement of the Constitution which they are to guard. They would declare it void."

James Wilson, one of the framers of the Constitution, said in the Pennsylvania Convention called to decide the question of ratification: "If a law should be made inconsistent with those powers vested by this instrument in Congress, the Judges, as a consequence of their independence, and the particular powers of government being defined, will declare such a law to be null and void; for the power of the Constitution predominates."

Luther Martin, also a member of the Constitutional Convention, but who refused to sign the instrument and opposed ratification, said in the state convention of Maryland: "Whether any laws or regulations of the Congress, any acts of the President or other officers, are contrary to, or not warranted by, the Constitution rests only with the Judges."

Oliver Ellsworth of Connecticut, who had helped to make the Constitution, had this to say in urging the Connecticut Convention to ratify it: "This Constitution defines the extent of the powers of the General Government. If the General Legislature should at any time overleap their limits, the Judicial Department is a constitutional check."

That the general public had the same understanding concerning this power of the Judiciary appears from articles published in the newspapers during the contest over ratification. In No. 78 of *The Federalist*, "Publius" (Alexander Hamilton) explained

⁵ *The Madison Papers*, II, 783-91, 1161-75; III, 1332-37.

that the Federal Judiciary would have power to interpret the Constitution in cases coming before the Court, and to hold invalid any conflicting act of Congress or of the Executive. This was, in his opinion, a strong argument in favor of ratification. On the other hand, "Brutus" (Robert Yates) an opponent of ratification, writing in the *New York Journal*, cited the existence of this very power as an argument against adopting the Constitution.

Another fiction sometimes heard is that the Constitutional Convention voted several times against giving the Supreme Court the power of judicial review. As stated by one newspaper columnist: "The Supreme Court has assumed a power which the Convention itself, on four separate occasions, categorically refused to grant."

This fiction has no foundation whatever; it arises solely because careless people have confused the power of judicial review with the legislative power of veto. Judicial review is exercised by the Court only *after* a law has been passed by Congress, and only *if* the law is subsequently involved in a case before the Court. The sole ground for the exercise of this power is that the law is in conflict with the Constitution; and the Court will apply no other test except the question of constitutionality. The veto power, on the other hand, is exercised by the Executive *before* the measure is finally enacted into law; and the veto may be exercised *for any reason whatever*.

It is a fact that on three different occasions the Convention voted against the proposal that the Supreme Court, acting jointly with the President, should exercise the power of veto. It is a fiction that the Convention, at any time or under any circumstances, ever voted against the power of judicial review.

In the Virginia Plan introduced in the Convention by Edmund Randolph was a proposal for a council of revision, composed of the Executive and a "convenient number" of the national Judiciary, with power to exercise a qualified veto on all legislative acts. This proposal was strongly supported by several leading members, including James Madison and George Mason of Virginia, and James Wilson of Pennsylvania. Urging its adoption, Mason declared that it was not sufficient for the Supreme Court to pass on the question of the constitutionality of laws, because Congress might pass measures that were unjust or pernicious, without being plainly unconstitutional. "He wished the further use to be made of the Judges of giving aid in preventing every improper law."⁶

But the general sentiment of the members was opposed to joining the Court with the President in the

exercise of a veto. As Rufus King of Massachusetts pointed out: "The Court should not concern itself with the merits or defects of a statute, as would be the case if it exercised the legislative power of veto, but should only look to the question of legality in exercising the power of judicial review." Three times the proposal for a council of revision was brought to a vote; and three times the Convention rejected it. The plain meaning of these adverse votes was that the Convention wished to confine the Court to the exercise of its proper judicial functions, one of which was its recognized power to decide questions of constitutionality. Yet out of these votes against joining the Court with the President in the exercise of a veto, the fancy of some writers has conceived another Supreme Court fiction.

Still another popular fiction is that the Supreme Court has "usurped" the power of judicial review, largely owing to the decisions of Chief Justice John Marshall. As Mr. Brisbane said in his column: "The learned Chief Justice Marshall wrote one decision after another declaring certain actions of Congress unconstitutional, and gradually the Supreme Court, independently of the Constitution, assumed on its own authority the right to nullify any decision arrived at by the elected Congress and approved by the elected President."

How far removed is this fiction from fact should be known to anyone who has even an elementary knowledge of our constitutional history. For throughout the first seventy years of our national life, only two acts of Congress were held unconstitutional by the Supreme Court; and only one of these two decisions was rendered during Marshall's lifetime. The first was Marshall's decision in *Marbury v. Madison* (1803); and the second was Chief Justice Taney's decision in the famous Dred Scott Case (1857).

In *Marbury v. Madison*, the Supreme Court held that Section 13 of the Judiciary Act of 1789 was unconstitutional. This section undertook to enlarge the original jurisdiction of the Supreme Court, notwithstanding its original jurisdiction had been prescribed in the Constitution itself. If the terms of the written Constitution were to have any effect, what other decision could have been made?

Nevertheless, Mr. Claude Bowers characterizes this action on the part of the Court as an "irregular proceeding," designed for "the sole purpose" of establishing the supremacy of the Judiciary over the other two branches of the government.⁷ And ignores numerous prior decisions by the courts in the exercise of judicial review, this author says that Marshall's action was "unprecedented."

It does not detract from the fame of our greatest Chief Justice to point out that in *Marbury v. Madison*, he merely affirmed a power which was generally

⁶ *The Madison Papers*, II, 1168.

⁷ Claude G. Bowers, *Jefferson in Power*, p. 169.

recognized as already in existence. During the contest over ratification of the Federal Constitution, Alexander Hamilton had expounded the Court's power of judicial review, claiming it as one of the admirable features of the new instrument. In *The Federalist* (No. 78), Hamilton said practically all that Marshall repeated, fifteen years later, in his famous decision:

The interpretation of the laws is the proper and peculiar province of the courts. A constitution is in fact, and must be regarded by the judges, as a fundamental law. It therefore belongs to them to ascertain its meaning, as well as the meaning of any particular act proceeding from the legislative body. If there should happen to be an irreconcilable variance between the two, that which has the superior obligation and validity ought, of course, to be preferred; or in other words, the Constitution ought to be preferred to the statute, the intention of the people to the intention of their agents.

Nor did Hamilton, any more than Marshall, originate the power of judicial review. Throughout the colonial period, the acts passed by the legislature of each colony were required to be in conformity with its charter and with the laws of England; otherwise, they were liable to be annulled by the Privy Council in London. When the colonies became independent states, the highest courts of at least five or six states exercised a similar check on the acts of the state legislatures; for it was a cardinal principle of American government that all legislative and executive acts must be in conformity with the written Constitution, the fundamental law.

In several states, during the decade 1780-90, the state legislatures passed statutes which deprived citizens of the right to trial by jury—a right secured by the state constitution in every state. And in each state where this was attempted, the state court held the statute invalid, because of its conflict with the state constitution.⁸ At a later date (1793), in deciding a case in Virginia, Judge Spencer Roane, himself a loyal Jeffersonian, asserted the power of judicial review in the most direct and positive terms; and this opinion was written ten years before Marshall's decision.

Thus the power of judicial review had been developed in America from early colonial times, had been continued and exercised by the highest courts of the several states, and was recognized as an established power of the courts when the Constitutional Convention assembled in Philadelphia. Obviously, then, Marshall did not invent judicial review in deciding *Marbury v. Madison* in 1803. What Marshall did,

and what the Supreme Court did on this occasion, was to exercise a judicial power already in existence; and to exercise it just as intended by the makers of the Federal Constitution.

The record of the proceedings in the First Congress (1789-91) afford further proof that the power of judicial review was generally recognized and endorsed long before Marshall's decision. For this Congress passed the Judiciary Act of 1789, which expressly provided for the exercise of this power. Furthermore, in response to popular demand for limitations on the power of the Federal Government, the First Congress submitted to the states the series of Amendments known as the Bill of Rights. Now the Bill of Rights was intended to protect the inalienable rights of the people against any arbitrary acts of either Congress or the Executive. Its prohibitions were intended to prohibit; they were not merely noble sentiments or pious adjurations addressed to the conscience of the Legislature and the Executive.

When James Madison introduced these Amendments in Congress, he declared that the Federal Judiciary would be the bulwark for the protection of the rights of the individual against legislative or executive encroachment. This same view was most vigorously expressed by such leaders as Samuel Adams, Thomas Jefferson, Patrick Henry, and Richard Henry Lee. Everyone knew that the guaranties of the Bill of Rights would be enforceable only through the power of judicial review, exercised by the Federal Courts; and everyone expected the Courts to enforce them. They could not be enforced in any other way; and if not enforced, what were the paper guaranties worth?

The proceedings of all the early Congresses, from 1789 to 1803, were filled with the debates on the constitutionality of proposed measures. In all of these debates, Federalists and Anti-Federalists alike were agreed on one thing, namely, that the Supreme Court would have the final decision on the question of constitutionality. An excellent review of these debates is given by Charles Warren in his chapter on "Early Congresses and the Court"; and the following is Mr. Warren's conclusion based on the record of the proceedings:

The proof is overwhelming, that the early Congresses themselves then believed the Court to possess the power [of judicial review], to which, at this late date, today, some "grumble-tonians" set up a challenge.⁹

It seems unfortunate that our secondary school histories, with scarcely an exception, make no mention of any part of this historical background which formed the solid basis for the power of judicial re-

⁸ An excellent summary of these early state cases is given by Charles Warren, *Congress, the Constitution, and the Supreme Court* (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1935), pp. 91-92.

⁹ Quoted with permission from Charles Warren, *Congress, the Constitution, and the Supreme Court*, p. 97.

view. All that is said in most of these texts is, that the Supreme Court "assumed" the power; or, "assumed it without any express provision in the Constitution"; or again, that the power "was at first not generally admitted." Ordinarily, no suggestion is given, not even a hint, that there was any historical basis or legal precedent for the Court's exercise of this power. What is the natural inference from the mere statement that the Supreme Court "assumed" the power of judicial review? Will not most students conclude that the Court arbitrarily took the power, on its own sole authority? Does not this kind of presentation help to perpetuate the fiction that the Supreme Court actually usurped the power of judicial review?

Perhaps the most popular fiction of all with regard to the Supreme Court is, that this tribunal can "nullify" any act of Congress or of the President, and therefore has supremacy over both. This amazing fiction is solemnly set forth as fact in several leading United States history texts used in secondary schools. In one of these appears this unqualified statement: "The Supreme Court has the right to nullify any law of Congress." Another author, in a higher flight of fancy, declares: "The Supreme Court can cast out any law that violates the spirit or the letter of our free Constitution."

Now the power to "nullify" or to "cast out" *any law* surely implies that the Court can always pass a judicial sentence of death upon any law which it regards as unconstitutional. Nothing could be farther from the fact; but the authors of many of the histories used in our schools appear to prefer the fiction. For two very good reasons, the Supreme Court cannot nullify *any law* of Congress. First, because many legislative acts cannot, from their very nature, ever be brought before the Court in the form of a case. And second, because the overwhelming majority of congressional statutes are never, in fact, involved in cases actually coming before the Court, which consequently has no opportunity to pass upon the question of their constitutionality.

For the Court does not go forth, armed with the sword of the Constitution, and proceed to strike down any conflicting act of Congress. Yet one may search through most of our school textbooks in vain to learn the simple truth that the Supreme Court does not determine questions, but only decides individual cases. This tribunal never passes on the validity of laws unless some particular statute is necessarily involved in a case properly before the Court—a case in which one of the parties affirms that the legislative act deprives him of some right claimed by him under the Federal Constitution. Early in President Washington's second term, the Supreme Court laid down the rule ever since invariably followed, that it would render no opinion or decision

except in actual cases coming before the Court in the exercise of its judicial functions.

Could not the true position of the Supreme Court be readily explained to students by citing President Washington's request, made in 1793, for an advisory opinion of the Court with regard to our obligations under the treaties with France? This request was politely but firmly refused, and Chief Justice John Jay gave the reason: "That the lines of separation drawn by the Constitution between the three departments of government, these being in certain respects checks upon each other, afford strong arguments against the propriety of our extrajudicially deciding the questions alluded to."¹⁰

So instead of the popular fiction that the Supreme Court can nullify any law of Congress, the actual fact is, that the Court will not give any opinion or make any decision unless in an actual case litigated by parties before the Court. Since this has been the unvarying rule for nearly one hundred and fifty years, it would not seem premature for the writers of school textbooks to renounce the fiction that the Supreme Court has plenary power to annul any legislative or executive act.

There are, of course, many other limitations on the exercise of the judicial power to pass on the question of constitutionality. The Court will not, for example, decide political questions, such as whether the emergency justifies the President in calling out the militia, or whether a state has a republican form of government, these being questions for the exclusive determination of the President or of Congress. Even when an act of Congress is properly before the Court, the presumption is always in favor of its validity; and the act will not be held invalid unless its unconstitutionality is shown beyond a reasonable doubt. Nor will the Court hold a statute void merely because it is unwise, or inexpedient, or because of its alleged violation of "the spirit of the Constitution."

It is hardly to be expected, nor is it necessary, that all of these limitations on the Court's power should be set forth in any secondary school textbook. On the other hand, there appears to be no excuse for giving a false and distorted notion of the Court's actual position in our government. Such an impression is certainly given by the statement that: "The Supreme Court can cast out any law that violates the spirit of our free Constitution." The writer of this statement is probably quite sincere in his naïve belief that the Court has this extraordinary power; but the Supreme Court has never believed it.

Because of the popular clamor arising over some of the comparatively few acts of Congress that have been held unconstitutional by the Supreme Court, students are likely to get the impression that the

¹⁰ Charles Warren, *The Supreme Court in United States History*, I (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1923), 109-111.

Court has held a great many congressional acts invalid. It has seldom occurred to our textbook writers to mention the fact that of more than 25,000 public acts passed by Congress during our entire national history, only about seventy-five have ever been held unconstitutional by the Supreme Court. That is to say, only approximately one-fourth of one per cent of the entire legislative output has been invalidated.

Most of the secondary school textbooks in United States history accept the Jeffersonian fiction that the Supreme Court's power of judicial review destroys the independence of the other coördinate departments. One of these texts asserts: "The Judiciary even overrides Congress. It may thwart the popular will and the will of every other branch of the government for years." Another history textbook has a long paragraph entitled, "Supremacy of the Federal Judiciary," in which the authors expound the theory that the power of judicial review establishes the "supremacy" of the Judiciary over the other two branches of the government. In their view, the Judiciary is not only the strongest of the three; it is "indeed supreme." A third text not only depicts the Supreme Court as occupying a position of supremacy over the legislature and the executive, but also endows the Court with the power of deciding "whether or not a law is to be allowed to remain on the statute books."

This last is a novel, if somewhat fanciful, embellishment of the usual fiction concerning the Court's power. Of course the Supreme Court has no power to expunge any law from the statute books; it has power only to decide cases. Under certain circumstances, the Court may decide that it will not enforce a particular statute because it is in conflict with the Federal Constitution, and therefore invalid. This decision thereafter serves as a notice to everyone that a like decision may be expected in all similar cases coming before the Court; and so the statute becomes, for all practical purposes, a nullity. Then why not say so plainly, instead of making the fanciful statement that "the Supreme Court decides whether a law is to be allowed to remain on the statute books or not." As a matter of actual fact, the Court decides nothing of the kind. Whether the invalid statute is allowed to remain on the statute books is solely for the determination of the legislature, which may decide to repeal the measure, or simply to forget about it, as it chooses.

The Jeffersonian fiction that the Federal Judiciary is "supreme" over the other two branches of the government results from a confusion of ideas. The framers of the Constitution planned to make each of the three branches "coördinate" to a limited extent only, while at the same time placing definite curbs or checks on the powers of each. It was never intended that either Congress, or the President, or the Judiciary, should be entirely independent; nevertheless, the

three branches are coördinate in any fair sense of the term, and no one of the three can properly be said to have "supremacy" over the others.

As everyone should know, Congress was never intended to have unlimited legislative powers; for not a single state would have ratified the Constitution if such had been the intention. The first section of Article I of the Constitution vests in Congress "all powers *herein granted*." Besides the restriction imposed by this limited grant, Amendment X expressly reserves to the states or to the people the powers not delegated. Neither this grant of limited legislative powers, nor the vesting of judicial power in the Federal Courts by Article III, nor the exercise by the Court of the power of judicial review, established any supremacy of one branch over the others. If the Supreme Court holds an act of Congress invalid, it is because the act is in conflict with the Constitution, not because the Court holds any control over Congress.

On a number of occasions in our history, Congress has passed acts which were in violation of the Federal Bill of Rights.¹¹ For example, either Congress or one of its branches has attempted to deny the right of trial by jury; has authorized illegal searches and seizures; has passed *ex post facto* laws; and has taken private property for public use without just compensation. By holding invalid these attempted usurpations of power, the Supreme Court did not establish its own supremacy over Congress. What the Court did establish was the supremacy of the Federal Constitution, which secures certain inalienable rights of the citizen against encroachment by any branch of the government.

Suppose that the Supreme Court, notwithstanding the constitutional guaranty of the right to trial by a jury, had enforced the act of Congress denying that right. Such a decision would be an admission that the legislative powers of Congress are without any curb or limit whatsoever, in spite of the thirty-one limitations and prohibitions of the Constitution. Then, instead of three coördinate branches of government, we should have an all-powerful Legislature, with a dependent Executive and a subservient Judiciary. So the conclusion is inescapable: that through the exercise of the power of judicial review, it is the Federal Constitution, not the Court, that is made supreme.

This is not, however, the conclusion arrived at by the ardent admirer and biographer of Thomas Jefferson. On the contrary, Mr. Bowers informs his readers that the sole purpose of Marshall's decision was to establish the supremacy of the Judiciary over the other two branches of the government. In his opinion,

¹¹ Charles Warren, *Congress, the Constitution, and the Supreme Court*, pp. 145-153.

judicial review curtailed the power of the people, and made our government "less democratic" than Jefferson desired.¹² It is to be regretted that this writer does not tell us what he means by a democratic government. But one may safely venture the statement that unlimited legislative power has never formed part of the American democracy. It was Jefferson himself who said: "An elective despotism was not the government we fought for."

All of these fictions about the Supreme Court, whether repeated from sheer carelessness or with deliberate motive, can only serve to lay the basis for popular prejudice against the Court's exercise of its power of judicial review. One fiction appears to support another; for if the makers of the Constitution did not intend the Court to have this power, then it is easy to believe that the Court itself merely assumed or usurped it. Next, by an easy transition, one is prepared to accept the fiction that the Court assumed a power far greater than the one actually exercised, and that it can annul any act of Congress or of the Executive. And from these several fictions comes the conclusion reached by Mr. Jefferson's biographer, that the assumption of this power has made our government "less democratic."

¹² Claude G. Bowers, *Jefferson in Power*, p. 169.

But fictions are not facts; nor can true conclusions be built on false premises. Fortunately, the actual facts concerning the position of the Supreme Court in our history have been so clearly shown by such eminent scholars as Charles Warren, Andrew C. McLaughlin, and Charles A. Beard, that there is no longer any excuse for perpetuating the fictions.¹³ In the light of the careful studies of these historians, two conclusions are established beyond dispute. The first is, that there is a solid historical foundation for the exercise by the Supreme Court of the power of judicial review. The second is, that without the exercise of this power by the Court, we could have neither a Federal Government, nor a supreme fundamental law—the law of the written Constitution. Instead, we should have a consolidated national state, with a Constitution which Congress could change at will. Under such a government, neither the states themselves, nor the individual citizens, would have any rights or privileges which Congress could not take from them at any time. Whether a government of this kind would be more of a democracy than our own is a question that every citizen can decide for himself.

¹³ Charles Warren, works previously cited; Andrew C. McLaughlin, *Constitutional History of the United States* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1935); Charles A. Beard, *The Supreme Court and the Constitution* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1912).

Student Forums and Discussion Clubs

GLEN W. MAPLE

Central High School, South Bend, Indiana

The pressure of fast-moving, world-shaping events is focusing an entirely new emphasis on the responsibility of American schools for training youth to think constructively on current problems. Today, as never before, education must keep pace with a streamlined, rapid-traveling world. Today, more than ever before, American schools must teach intelligent, aggressive citizenship. A measure passed in Washington, a decree of a dictator in a totalitarian state, a bullet fired in Paris or in Moscow—each may vitally affect us tomorrow. To ignore forces at work at home or abroad which so vitally concern our own lives is to place ourselves at the mercy of these forces. The more we know about these movements, the more we attempt to analyze them and to understand their significance, the better are our chances of shaping constructively our own national destiny. The political, social, and economic welfare of our nation will remain safe only so long as the citizens themselves take a vital interest in the questions confronting us.

Teachers of the social studies are constantly alert

to discover ways of teaching, and ways of learning that assure a definite carry-over from school life to everyday life, and to active participation in political affairs. In the past, there have been teachers who hesitated to bring controversial questions into the classroom for discussion. Progressive teachers no longer ban such subjects. If our chief objective in the teaching of social studies is the development of intelligent citizens of integrity and stamina, how or where are students going to learn how to study, analyze, and interpret these questions in a sane, unemotional manner if not in school under the careful direction of trained, unbiased teachers? We cannot afford to leave our young citizens to the political demagogues for their training in political analyses. Therefore it is evident that the schools should use every agency for stimulating interest in, and intelligent discussion of vital present-day problems.

One of these agencies which is making headway throughout the country and represents perhaps one of the most effective movements in the direction

of sound political education is the forum idea. Probably the best known type of forum is that which was developed in Des Moines, Iowa, some time ago under the direction of Dr. Studebaker, as an agency of adult education. Since the success of these forums among adults has proved that such methods clarify ideas and pave the way to intelligent and well-considered action, surely it is equally important that the technique of discussion be encouraged by every available means among the young people of the nation, particularly the students in our high schools. To this end it seems appropriate that educators, who are interested in the results attained through organized discussion among adults, should concern themselves about the promotion of this activity among the young people for whose training they are responsible. Through this means the next generation should be made more able than the present to discuss their problems logically and objectively, and to act upon them sanely and intelligently.

Merely as an example of a plan that has been used successfully, and which, therefore, might be followed in a general way by anyone interested in carrying further this forum idea, a brief description is given here of a civic experiment carried out recently in northern Indiana. In this case, under the sponsorship of the writer of this article, a series of panel discussions was organized involving coöperation among the four public high schools of South Bend and Mishawaka.

The first step was selection of a committee to choose subjects for discussion, and to plan the program. The committee sought and received suggestions from all the classes in government or civics in the four schools. In order to make sure of selecting subjects of real student interest, the committee then chose those mentioned more than once among the suggestions received, and submitted them to a vote of all the students in the participating classes. Since four subjects were to be included in the program being planned, the four receiving the greatest number of votes were selected. Confidence that this method will assure really important subjects depends upon the background previously acquired by the students in the study of current problems. If there is some doubt as to this student background, it would be well for the committee to select a number of important subjects and submit these to the students for a vote as to the most interesting one. Since, however, actual practice in democracy is a prime objective in this whole plan, student activity and initiative is to be encouraged to the greatest possible extent, and the teacher should keep in the background as much as possible.

After the most interesting subjects had been determined, each school chose one; a date was then set, and a place was agreed upon for the presentation

of the discussions. Since it was found impractical to plan for attendance of all the members of all the classes, a delegate system of attendance was decided upon, and each class elected a specified number from its membership to attend the public forum, and report later to the class upon the ideas brought out at the forum.

In addition to these delegates, each school selected a panel of from four to seven students to lead in the discussion of the particular subject assigned to that school. The interests and abilities of the students must be given consideration in the selection of a panel. These students made special study of the topic to be discussed, and each one took a particular phase of the subject and planned a short talk on it, while he also prepared himself to answer any questions he might be asked. Every panel member, of course, gathered as much information as he could about the subject. Material, in the form of books, magazines, and pamphlets, was obtained from the public library, the United States Office of Education, and from other government agencies through the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C. Interviews were had with local leaders—government officials, business men, labor leaders, and other citizens. It was necessary for the panel members to get much more information than was put into their talks, in order to be prepared for the questioning from the audience.

At the meeting, which was held in the main auditorium of the Central High School at South Bend, a student chairman presided over all the sessions throughout the day. All the members of a panel sat around a table on the stage, and each gave his short talk informally in answer to a question put to him by the leader of the panel. Panel members then questioned each other, after which members of the audience questioned the panel speakers, or added comments and opinions from the floor.

Three of the four subjects were thus handled in panel discussions, while, for the sake of variety, the fourth was presented as a formal debate. Since the public forum was held just four days before the fall election, a realistic political touch was planned by securing the consent of the Republican and Democratic candidates for Congress from the third district to appear in a joint discussion as the closing event of the day's program. The subject of this joint discussion was, "America's Foreign Policy."

The complete program for this one day forum was as follows:

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| 9:00 A.M. | Panel Discussion: Are our present social security laws satisfactory? |
| 10:00 A.M. | Panel Discussion: Is the TVA theory sound, and should it be continued and extended? |
| 11:00 A.M. | Panel Discussion: Is the present Federal Housing Administration policy |

practical and beneficial to the whole country?

12:00 Noon Delegates' Luncheon—Cafeteria.

1:15 P.M. Debate: Resolved; that the United States should form an alliance with Great Britain to preserve the peace of the world.

2:25 P.M. Joint Discussion: America's Foreign Policy.

Out of this experiment in building citizenship there have developed a number of student discussion groups and also the formation of a state league of social studies clubs. Charter members of this organization consist of a number of high schools of northern Indiana. The constitution of the organization provides for a board of sponsors made up of five individual club sponsors elected by the teachers who have charge of the clubs in the member schools. This board elects its own chairman, and chooses an executive secretary who is not a member of the board. The adult board coöperates with, and advises the executive committee of students in planning for state meetings, and in extending to member schools helps and suggestions for the local clubs. The executive committee is made up of a president, vice-president, secretary, and treasurer of the state organization, all of whom are elected by the student delegates at an annual meeting. At these annual meetings opportunity is afforded for the sharing of experiences and ideas, reports are heard from special committees, and debates, round tables and panel discussions are conducted. Many activities are being planned. In a Presidential campaign year a mock national convention may be put on; at other times a session of Congress may be staged, or other dramatizations of actual processes of democratic government.

The separate clubs meet regularly in their own schools where discussions are carried on, sometimes by panels, sometimes in the form of debates, and occasionally by outside speakers who are authorities on certain subjects. Whatever the form of program, the forum idea is always carried out by throwing the meeting open for questions from the floor after the presentation of the subject. Some clubs meet

after school or in the evening, others during the club period of the school schedule, while in some cases on certain days the regular class period is conducted as a club meeting. Some of these clubs have conducted safety campaigns; others have developed a visual education program for the social studies department; still others have sponsored a guide service for tourists or other visitors to their city. These are activities which clubs of this kind may engage in, besides the regular discussion of current problems.

The subjects selected for forum discussion may be chosen from a wide variety of fields. Most clubs will probably choose topics related to the work they are doing in their civics, government, or other social studies classes. Current event topics may be chosen, or questions relating to the problems of youth and preparation for the future. Some topics that may be suggestive for youth forums are:

- The European Situation
- The United States and Latin America
- Our Neutrality Policy
- The Open Door Policy
- Russia and Communism
- Civil Liberty in America
- Fascism and Naziism
- Labor Problems of Today
- The Relief Program
- Government Expenditures
- Government Ownership or Government Regulation of Public Utilities
- The Farm Problem Today
- Local Taxation
- Coöperatives
- Purposes of Education
- Propaganda Analysis

Student forums or discussion clubs in high schools under wise leadership and competent guidance will offer opportunity to gain knowledge and practice in parliamentary procedure, develop sound techniques of discussion, provide an emotional outlet, promote a very pleasant and wholesome kind of social life, develop leadership, and form habits and interests which will carry over to later life when school days are over.

An Experimental Course in World History

F. L. CLAYTON

Freehold High School, Freehold, New Jersey

With the growth in the number of our high school pupils who do not wish to take college preparatory work, there came a demand for some general courses of the cultural type. One known as "World History" has become popular as a course for pupils who have

had little history during their early high school years. It was designed to give these pupils some historical background, but not especially to prepare them for the further study of school history.

The course has filled a need, even though at first

it was nothing more than an attempt to combine early and modern European history courses. Recent textbooks show a much better trend. They really are attempts to give a general picture of the development of some important institutions. They are usually histories of European civilization. The "World History" title assumes the typical western concept of the world. However, a history of European civilization is quite broad enough for one year's study.

Now that we have had the advantage of several years' experience with such a course we might well pause to ask whether or not it is so designed as to give the pupils for whom it is intended the most that such a brief course can offer. Anyone who has taught history, I suppose, has formulated some list of objectives. There can be no harm in trying again. Without making any claim to originality the following objectives are offered: Primarily, to secure a better understanding and evaluation of present day problems and events and a vision of the possibilities of the future by studying the broad currents of history. The secondary objectives include information regarding names and events that will enrich the reading of literature or any study of the fine arts, together with an interest in reading history as an avocation and as a preparation for further reading and study. The concomitant social learnings are not far different from those of other subjects. We have developed a course in world history which we believe, comes nearer to meeting these objectives than does the course as usually given. We offer it, not as something complete, but as an experiment that has already produced valuable results.

We were interested at first chiefly in the materials of instruction. Problems arose in studying the materials that led us to experiment in method also.

Our method of procedure was determined by a number of not unusual problems. One of the chief of these was the fact that the majority of these tenth grade pupils could not read well or even make any sense out of the text. In our first years we made a topical study of history and wished to continue in this manner. But we seemed to be failing to leave any picture of the whole of European history, any framework of sequential events on which to hang off bits of information. Notebook work was, in general, something to show the teacher for credit rather than something of use to the pupil. The plans we have used to solve these problems have met with enough success to make us wonder how others have succeeded in trying the same procedures.

We start the year by reading through one history text. We looked for one that would sketch a simple outline of important trends and events—important at least in the sense that they are assumed to be part of the information of anyone who knows anything about history. The book that we have used is *Story of Na-*

tions, by L. B. Rogers, F. Adams and W. Brown. The usual procedure is to spend one period in reading and the next day in answering the questions found at the end of the chapter. This is hardly a novel procedure in itself. During the period of reading, pupils were encouraged to ask questions about portions of the text that they could not understand. This opportunity was used only by a minority of the class, usually those who needed the least help. Probably some others were in too much of a fog to ask questions. The majority soon learned to look for answers as they read. Of course some just looked for answers. As questions were answered we kept referring to the text for any that did not seem to be perfectly clear. This really seemed to help the reading. All tried to introduce additional material of interest. In answering questions pupils were encouraged to refer freely to their notes.

After covering a number of chapters, a test was given, based directly at first on the questions in the text. During the test, pupils not only used this text, but any other book, as well as their own notes. However, notes could not be exchanged during the test. While the test was long, anyone who had good notes and who could recall most of the answers, completed it in one period. We always had one essay type question. In time, the tests gradually drew away from the questions in the text, but required the same information in other words and forms. While studying the unit we tried to liven it by showing slides, film rolls, pictures and by discussing current problems.

We considered the reading of the text our unit on government and then took up the other topics which are described below. In working on these other units we divided the class for individual or small group work. As each special topic was reported to the class the rest were encouraged and aided by taking notes. These notes, as in the earlier work, were the property of the pupil. They were checked only by request. In many cases the pupils ask for the summary of a topic to improve the notes that they were taking. On some topics we made up an outline of questions which were to make a basis for the reports and the notes. As before, the notes were used freely in tests and examinations except as we barred their use to test our own experiment. This in brief was the general method of our procedure.

As far as this course is concerned the material that we introduced is our chief interest. Without giving undue emphasis to the economic forces in history we can agree that nothing is of greater importance to the average person than the manner and standard of daily living. Usually the study of this in history courses is fragmentary or altogether neglected. Because of the value of a study of living conditions in fulfilling our aims for a history course and on account of the numerous contacts with everyday experience we chose

this general topic for our next unit of study. Individuals or small groups studied such topics as housing, clothing, food, games and sports, light and heat, education, transportation, communication, sanitation and hygiene. We studied different standards of living today within America and in foreign nations. Then we traced, by means of special studies and reports the progress that has been made from primitive times until today. We talked of the possibility of improving our standard of living and of the tragedy of hunger in the midst of plenty. We got enthusiastic about what might be done if we only want strongly enough to do it. For the sake of convenience we arbitrarily divided reports into time periods as follows: Pre-historic; civilizations prior to the Greek and Roman; Greek and Roman civilizations; the Middle Ages; early modern times to the present; and the present day. Pictures, cards and slides for projection, booklets, costumes, etc., were used to make the reports interesting and instructive.

Two or more other units were treated in the same manner. We studied the racial-national groups represented in our classes—and we had represented all the major countries in Europe and several minor ones, as well as the African Negro. We studied the history of each group and its contributions to civilization. We learned something about outstanding men and women in each group. Pupils were encouraged, although not forced, to study their own racial backgrounds. For some reason in succeeding years in following this type of unit the members of the minority groups seemed to have more confidence in talking about the group to which they belong. We have come about as near to real purposeful education as applied to any considerable portion of the class as in any class that I have ever taught. Very little of either of these two units of work could have been included in the world history course as previously given.

Our next unit of work was on the progress of

science and invention, science and industry, or on ways of producing economic goods. In any of the sub-topics of this unit we noted the slow progress up to the beginning of modern science and the rapid rate of change since. We discussed some of the problems as well as the benefits created by these rapid changes, particularly the difficulty of keeping other institutions up to the pace of science and industry.

Other units of work that we have chosen include organized religion, colonization or the spread of races and cultures, and the methods and effects of warfare.

We have used various methods of binding these units together and of getting chronological sequence. In the room we have a large chart, about eighteen inches by twelve feet, showing the main outlines of the types of important events usually found in standard histories. The time span of this chart is from 3400 B.C. to 1939 A.D. This chart can be read from any point in the room and is constantly referred to. Introductions to new units, special reports, maps, and charts have been used as in any type of course.

What do the pupils learn in this course? The last year that we used the more standard type of course we gave a more comprehensive type of examination than usual, containing one hundred and seventy-five points. The next year, using the type of course described above (except that we did not read through one text), we used the same examination and had a four point higher median. This is, of course, far from conclusive evidence. It is only fair to remark, also, that the examination favored the former type of course. Nearly one half of the year was spent in studying aspects of history that had been neglected in the older type of course.

As an experiment in developing courses that will better fit our social studies to meet present needs, our "World History" classes offer this account of our experiences.

The Construction of An Achievement Test in Tenth Grade World History

F. ROSCOE KNISS

Supervising Principal, Bigler Township Public Schools, Madera, Pennsylvania

There has been a dearth of studies in the field of world history. The author has conducted several small researches, all of which have led up to the present study. Very little help could be secured from other studies, and none of a scientifically controlled nature were found.

Ample, although somewhat contradictory, evi-

dence was encountered, which tended to prove that history is considered to be a necessary, secondary school subject. From several recent researches in the social studies the author discovered that world history is at present the most commonly offered course in that field in the tenth grade.

The question as to whether objective testing would

satisfactorily measure the desired objectives of world history was approached next. It was found that recent studies and expert opinion strongly supported the theory that objective tests could be effectively used, not only to test for factual material, but also for such goals as "appreciations, visions, ideals, and attitudes."

A strongly contributing factor in motivating the present study was the fact that objective tests in world history were decidedly scarce. None were offered by the leading test-publishing companies when this study was begun. In view of the demonstrated place in the secondary school curriculum of world history it was believed that such a project might become a helpful contribution.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The plan was to construct an achievement test in world history that would be of the objective type. It was also intended to make it broadly diagnostic in nature, because this would enable world history teachers to measure, at least approximately, some of the phases of historical knowledge and appreciation. More than this could not be attempted safely in view of the opinions of specialists in the field of testing. For many of them believe that a test cannot be constructed successfully that will measure achievement and at the same time be diagnostic. This is chiefly on account of the length that such a test necessarily would have to be. It was intended to construct a test which could be administered within a fifty-minute period.

PROCEDURE

The objectives of world history were studied. This was done by: (1) a study of researches in the field; (2) an examination of courses of study; (3) a perusal of textbooks in world history; and (4) a questionnaire to high school teachers of this subject. In this way six broad, general objectives were set up: (1) to achieve a knowledge of the development of civilization; (2) to explain the present; (3) to develop patriotism; (4) to develop intelligent citizenship; (5) to acquire broad sympathies and culture; and (6) to acquire powers of interpretation and judgment.

Because validation is of utmost importance, considerable effort was expended to secure a valid test. Textbooks, courses of study, and tests were examined; research studies were considerably used; the opinions of teachers in the field were secured, and the opinions of educational leaders in many fields of education were sought. By these means it was hoped to produce a test which would be a valid measure of achievement in world history. From eight textbooks,

seven courses of study, and six tests, 2927 items were obtained to be used as a basis in the construction of test items.

The percentage of space allotted by the texts to the three epochs of history, ancient, medieval, and modern, was also determined, and the number of items in the test conforms to this allotment.

An attempt to insure reliability was made by several criteria: (1) Reliability is presupposed when validity is established. (2) Objectivity of scoring must be assured. (3) The test must have extended sampling. (4) The test items were arranged from easy to difficult. (5) The items should be discriminatory, that is, they should differentiate between the "good" and "poor" pupil. (6) Extreme care must be exercised in the wording of the items. (7) The test should be easy to administer.

Since the test was to be broadly diagnostic, it was also necessary to determine the phases of history to be tested. This was done by consulting diagnostic tests in other fields of history, by studying researches in the social studies, by consulting the announced purposes of writers of world history tests, and mainly by the opinions of teachers of world history. As a result the following phases were selected: (1) Factual Knowledge; (2) Time Relationships; (3) Contributions of the Past; (4) Cause and Effect; (5) Tying the Past and Present Together; and (6) Problems of Life.

Three types of test items were used: the simple recall (for factual knowledge), the matching type (for time relationships), and the multiple choice (for the last four phases of the test). These types were chosen because of their recommended and proven fitness as instruments of measurement for the particular type of information to be tested. For time relationships the rearrangement type was preferred, but was discarded because of intricacies in scoring. In the matching form of test it is not wise to have too many items in one group, and dates should be arranged in chronological order. It is also recommended that not too many different types of items be used in any one test. The many dangers in the use of the true and false type were also discovered, and as a result this form was not used.

In the actual construction of the items, they were first written on 3 x 5 inch cards, double spaced. Each item was given a key letter to denote the part of the test for which it was intended. They were then rated for difficulty. In this way they could easily be altered and revised, and placed in proper order of difficulty. At this point three important warnings may be sounded: (1) Be careful that insufficient learning does not mislead, especially the "good" pupil; (2) Attempt to eliminate the dangers of wrong learning; and (3) Be sure that an item really measures the thing it is intended to measure.

The number of items selected for the test was 130. This number can easily be covered in fifty minutes. They were also selected so that from five to ninety per cent of the pupils would answer the various items correctly. The median score should be about one half of the total number of test items. That objective was realized in this test. Items of all ranges of difficulty between five and ninety per cent were also selected because a test should not only discriminate between the "good" and "poor" pupils, but also between the pupils of each stage of achievement. The range of scores should be from near zero to near perfect. In the final selection of items greatest weight was given however to the item which best developed an understanding of the six stated objectives of the teaching of history.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE TEST

The provisional or first form was given to 210 eleventh grade pupils who had previously studied world history. A Pearson r of .904, P.E. .015, was obtained. The median was 71 and the mean 73. The curve of distribution of the scores roughly approximated the normal curve. The item difficulty was determined, the tetrachoric r was computed, unsatisfactory and indiscriminatory items were eliminated or revised, and the preliminary or second form was constructed. In this form the items were corrected for chance. In the first form they were not corrected for chance in the scoring.

The second form was given to 244 students with a resultant Pearson r of .950, P.E. .007, a median of 65, and a mean of 66. It will be seen that from these standpoints this form was satisfactory. This form was then put through the same treatment as the first form, and from this the final form was constructed. The second form was also sent to seventy educational specialists for critical analysis and suggestions.

The final form was administered to fifty-seven pupils who had recently completed world history. A Pearson r of .965 was obtained for this group.

SUMMARY

1. It was hoped that the test would stimulate the pupil's interest in world history, and make the subject more meaningful.

2. The items have been validated as carefully as the limitations of the author would permit, and checked against all available criteria.

3. The test appears to be sufficiently reliable if Pearson r 's are any true criterion.

4. The data on item difficulty indicates that the items are sufficiently discriminatory.

5. The data on item difficulty also shows that the range of difficulty extending from near zero to near perfect is satisfactory.

6. The median and mean of the first two forms are at or near one-half of the possible score.

7. In attempting to test for such factors as "Tying the Past and Present Together," the test is making a departure from the type of item usually found in an objective test.

8. World history includes literally thousands of facts, and there is little agreement as to which of these facts are of most importance.

9. The teachers questioned believe that a core of factual information is needed.

10. The teachers questioned agree strongly that the outcomes of the study of history should result in understandings and appreciations rather than in the retention of facts.

11. Before history can yield its maximum value to the student, a greater degree of agreement on objectives and materials for courses of study must be reached.

12. Objective testing is given a place in the history program both by specialists in the field and by secondary school teachers of history.

13. According to the group of pupils with whom the author worked, the scores aligned the group in order of achievement more accurately after they had been corrected for chance.

14. It seemed desirable to establish time limits for the test and for its six parts. This tended to lessen the factor of chance answers.

15. It was also found advisable to warn the students against guessing at items about which they were totally ignorant.

16. In so far as possible the essential steps in the construction of objective tests were followed.

17. The items were distributed in the fields of ancient, medieval, and modern history, in accordance with the emphasis which these epochs receive in standard texts.

18. This study tends to show that it is possible to measure the pupil's ability in such abstract qualities as interpretation of causes, correlation of the past with the present, etc.

19. One limitation of the study must be noted: due to the scarcity of tests in this field it was not possible to check the results with an outside criterion.

20. Another limitation is the fact that the mental abilities of the various groups tested were unknown to the author. As a result groups of various levels of ability may have been tested, resulting in bi-modal distributions of scores.

Recognition by High School Seniors of Outcomes of Progressive Instruction

E. B. CLOGSTON

Crane Technical High School, Chicago, Illinois

Under the influence of progressive educational philosophy the writer, during the past few years, has paid considerable attention to a classroom procedure in social studies instruction aimed at the development of active civic-mindedness rather than mere absorption of facts about the social heritage. Only recently, and almost accidentally, has he had any revelation of the effectiveness of the aims and methods used, as expressed by the students regarding recognition of changes within themselves. The following account does not pose as an experiment subject to the rigorous statistical measurements of the scientific conservative, but it does serve as a straw in the wind.

The writer and a like-minded colleague instruct double-size classes together in a large room. Four civics classes and one class in second semester United States history involve a total of 375 students under our tutelage. Many of the history students are also members of the civics classes. Practically all the boys have known only the information type of instruction, and for most of them a single semester is all too short to free them from the fetters of tradition and to arouse them from their inertia.

The boys in each class are grouped into six committees of about a dozen students each. Each committee elects a chairman. In conference with one of the instructors, the committee selects a social problem situation suitable for a semester's work of investigation, such as: "Causes of American Wars and the Possibility of Preventing Future Wars"; "Holding Companies and Their Influence"; "The Money Problem in the United States"; "City Government and Its Improvement," and "Monopolies, Their Accomplishments and Their Sins." In the conference, meeting weekly, the structural outline of the investigation and the sources of information are indicated.

The weekly program of activity provides for presentation of basic textbook information relative to the background of the course by the instructors on Monday, with an open forum on current happenings on Friday. During the three intervening days a third of the committees investigate material in the library while another third hold a conference with an instructor or have a discussion about their cooperative efforts. The remaining third organize their notes

and consult the instructor about specific difficulties under a supervised study arrangement.

In addition to texts issued to each boy individually, a small set of pertinent books and periodicals, including local daily newspapers, is available to each committee. With this cooperative set-up it was deemed not illogical to ask the boys to judge their own scholastic marks for seven weeks' work and to justify those marks by indicating in what way they had developed to merit the marks set down.

Since only one paper was desired from each boy, though he might be in two classes, only 310 papers were returned. With a few exceptions the marks coincided well with marks of the instructors.

The writer sorted out all papers that mentioned an ability, skill, or attitude from those that confined themselves to factual learning only. Some 246 were thus classified as "factual," while only sixty-four indicated a recognition of anything beyond fact learning. Thus about eighty per cent were apparently untouched by the progressive methods of instruction; at least they seemed unable to recognize definitely any change, though most of them described their work as more interesting. This was at least some gain and no loss.

The specific acquisitions other than knowledge of "content" facts admitted by the writers of the sixty-four papers were roughly classified into seventeen types. Almost half of these students (thirty) mentioned critical reading or thinking. Some of their statements follow:

"Now, when I read of something about foreign or national affairs I get more meaning out of the article."

"I have more of an idea how to interpret what I read and hear."

"There is more behind the news in newspapers than is printed."

"I have learned to read what is behind the news as well as what is printed in the paper."

"I now challenge every article I read and think after I have read it just what the writer's purpose or idea is."

"I have learned to think before I speak and as I read. I have learned not to take things for granted, for instance, newspapers."

"I have learned that behind nearly every article,

or newspaper item, on current foreign and domestic affairs, which appears in newspapers and magazines, there is something much deeper than the article tells us, with a very interesting background."

"Whenever a new problem or theory comes up for consideration, I have learned to challenge it. Why is it here? Whom does it benefit most? What will be its reaction on the masses?"

"Since coming here I have taught myself to form a balance point between the two groups of ideas."

"I know that since I am to take part some day in the making or breaking of our democracy I must try to get the views of others and their reason for them so that I can be a better citizen, and an asset to my country."

"When asked a question regardless of what subject, I think of what I shall answer instead of blurt-ing it out before my questioner can finish talking. I have gained a habit of seeing through what I read."

"For one thing, sitting back and letting some one else do the thinking tends to destroy democracy and to create dictatorships. I know now there is more than one side to each question and that many things may be said for and against each side."

"I have often let emotion take the place of reasoning when judging articles made by others to influence me. Since entering this class I have come to realize to be guided by emotion is to be led to the slaughter."

"I have been given a chance to use my brains instead of somebody else's."

"To find the facts of an article it is necessary to scout around and dig up information from many sources that require a great deal of work. After finding the facts the truth of an article can then be determined."

"I found that you cannot rely on some stories and write-ups in the newspapers. You must get information from other sources beside the daily paper, such as the radio."

"I have learned where and how to find real information."

"But now when I judge a social problem I consider it from all angles and for the benefit of the people."

"I found it was very interesting work to analyze current events in order to find their cause."

"I have learned to judge reports and newspaper articles with consideration of the facts on all sides."

"I learned that you have to read between the lines and also to take articles with a grain of salt."

"There is always a chance of having another reason behind the article or cartoon beside the one made public."

"I have learned not to accept just printed news stories but to search them for some other meaning."

Social coöperation was mentioned by several students:

"Before I came to this class my conception of what there is in life revolved about personal gain and benefit. In the past few weeks I have learned something else. You might call it communal spirit, a potential source of happiness that is much bigger than anything personal gain can give."

"I have learned that if I help the other fellow and the mass of the people, it will gradually help make it easier for me."

"I have learned how some persons can become helpless and dependent upon another when the opportunity is near."

"I have learned to work with and for our group instead of for myself alone."

Of the sixty-four students, five referred to a search for truth:

"Now in my daily reading I began thinking, Is that the truth? Can it be the truth?"

"I can read between the lines and find the truth."

"We should not believe everything we hear but should face the facts and try to learn the truth."

"I began to poke my nose here and there in order to learn the truth."

"It is easy to accept traditional habits and thoughts, but it's really downright hard to seek for the truth."

Four of the boys stated that they reserved conclusions till they could gather facts. A like number confessed to seeing the importance of history as connected to current happenings. Another four admitted they were taking part in extramural civic conversations. Four said they were free to learn even if the instructors had different points of view. Three boys specifically referred to a growing tolerance for opposing beliefs and views. Three expressed their conviction of their relationship to social problems about them. Two admitted changing viewpoints, while two others spoke of greater facility in reading.

Five boys expressed an individually different gain. One developed a sense of altruism; another "overcame blushing"; another improved his conduct; another increased his enjoyment in reading, and the fifth found he could "talk problems over."

It would seem from the foregoing that fact learning preponderates in spite of the efforts of the instructors to place the emphasis elsewhere, but that functional achievements are possible. Making due allowance for overstatement, the fact that some desirable social change has occurred in the students quoted, cannot be laughed down. As to measuring the degree of advancement toward worthy citizenship, no suitable measuring stick is available at present. As for the instructors they are reinforced in their faith in what they are doing and in their determination to proceed in the same direction.

The Motion Picture Study Period

ROBERT B. NIXON

Radnor High School, Wayne, Pennsylvania

Each month there appears in this section, synopses of films that may be used in the social studies classroom. The films selected are those that can be obtained free, or by simply paying transportation charges. They include many topics in the fields of industry, agriculture, transportation and business. The publishers and the author give permission to teachers to mimeograph or to use these synopses and any other material found in this section in any way as an aid to teaching. All films listed are silent films. Methods for using and suggestions for booking films may be found in *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, XXIX (November 1938), 306-309.

THE STORY OF THE TIRE

Title: The Story of the Tire.
Source: Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company, Motion Picture Department, Akron, Ohio.
Sponsor: Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company.
Topic: Rubber.
Size: 16 mm. 35 mm.
Reels: 2, length 800 feet, 2000 feet.
Running time: 30 minutes.

This picture presents an interesting study in the manufacture of automobile tires—from the rubber and cotton plantations down through the various operations to the wrapping for shipment to the dealer. The spectator sees Goodyear's rubber plantations in Sumatra and cotton plantations in Arizona, the gathering of latex from rubber trees and preparing it for shipment as crude rubber, and the planting, cultivating and picking cotton and transporting it to nearby gins and on to textile mills, where fabric for Goodyear tires is made.

The following processes are observed:

Washing impurities from sheets of rubber, hanging sheets up to dry; adding various compounds and mixing the mass in mills.

Calendering the compounded rubber—that is, running it, with fabric, between heated rolls, the material coming out as rubberized cloth.

Cutting the fabric into bias strips, which are sent on conveyors to the tire builder.

Building the tire, ply upon ply, on a metal core, which serves as a mold.

Sending the tire to the pit, where it is vulcanized and where at the same time the tread design is impressed by a steel mold.

The final inspection of the tire and its movement on to the wrapping machine as the last stage before being sent to the shipping room, soon to be in the dealer's rack, ready for delivery to the car owner.

CONQUERING THE JUNGLE

Title: Conquering the Jungle.
Source: Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company, Motion Picture Department, Akron, Ohio.
Sponsor: Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company.
Topic: Rubber.
Size: 16 mm. 35 mm.
Reels: 1, length 400 feet, 1000 feet.
Running time: 15 minutes

Rubber, formerly gathered from trees growing wild in forests, is now chiefly obtained from plantations, set out by man and carefully cultivated. This picture, filmed on the Island of Sumatra, shows the Javanese and Chinese coolies, in an oppressively hot climate, clearing the swamp-ridden jungles of giant trees, huge stumps and almost impenetrable underbrush. Useless territory is transformed as the first step to modern rubber planting on the Goodyear plantation of some 40,000 acres.

The picture shows various other tasks necessary in blazing the trail for a great industry; how millions of rubber seeds are germinated and the growing shoots transplanted; how the milky-white juice (latex) is gathered from the matured trees; how the latex is coagulated, rolled into sheets, washed and otherwise prepared for shipment as rubber.

Native royalty and the amusements and pastimes of the people are depicted in an interesting manner. The annual horse fair, which always draws great crowds, and many other sidelights concerning the inhabitants of the island, as well as their activities in the rubber production industry, are shown in a way that lends enchantment to an impressive picture.

ISLAND OF YESTERDAY

Title: Island of Yesterday.
Source: Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company, Motion Picture Department, Akron, Ohio.
Sponsor: Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company.
Topic: Sumatra, Rubber.
Size: 16 mm. 35 mm.

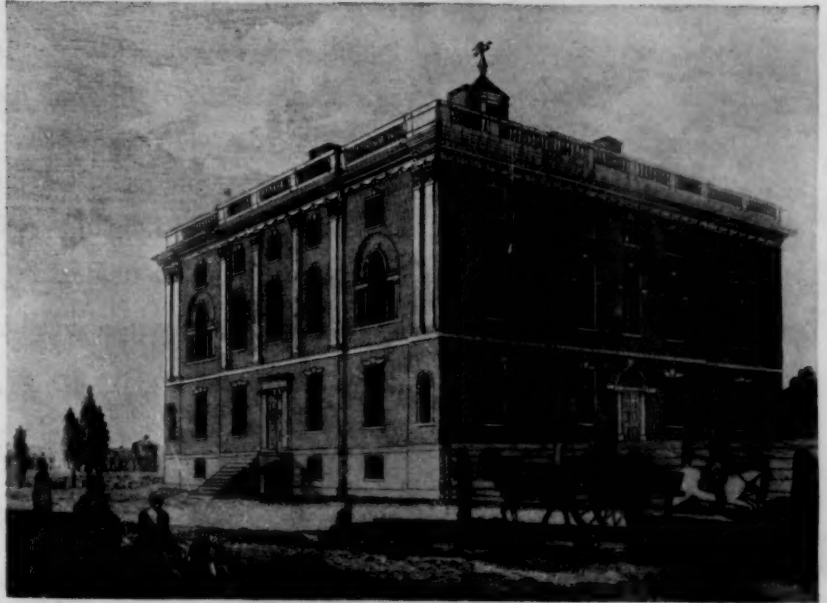
ILLUSTRATED SECTION

VOLUME XXX, NUMBER 3

THE SOCIAL STUDIES

MARCH, 1939

THE YOUNG REPUBLIC



From 1790 to 1800 Philadelphia was the capital of the United States. This view shows the building erected for the President's residence, but never occupied by him. For many years it was used by the University of Pennsylvania.



As a part of Alexander Hamilton's financial policy, Congress granted a charter in 1791 to the First Bank of the United States. This building in Philadelphia was erected in 1795 as its headquarters.

THE YOUNG REPUBLIC

Most Serene, Serene, most puissant, puissant, high, illustrious, noble, honorable,
venerable, wise and prudent Emperors, Kings, Republicks, Princes, Dukes, Earls, Barons, Lords,
Burgomasters, Counallors, as also Judges, Officers, Justiciaries & Agents of all the good Cities and places, wh-
-ther ecclesiastical or secular who shall see these patents or hear them read We the United States of
America in Congress Assembled make known, that John Green Captain of the Ship call'd the *Emybels* of
China is a Citizen of the United States of America and that the Ship which he commands belongs to Citizens
of the said United States and as we wish to see the said John Green prosper in his lawful affairs, our
prayer is to all the beforementioned, and to each of them seperately, where the said John Green shall arrive
with his Vessel & Cargo, that they may please to receive him, with goodnefs and to treat him in a becoming
manner, permitting him upon the usual tolls & expences in passing & repassing, to pass, navigate and
frequant the ports, passes and territories to the end to transact his businys where and in what man-
-ner he shall judge proper? whereof we shall be willingly indebted

The Nifflin
Chs Thomson for

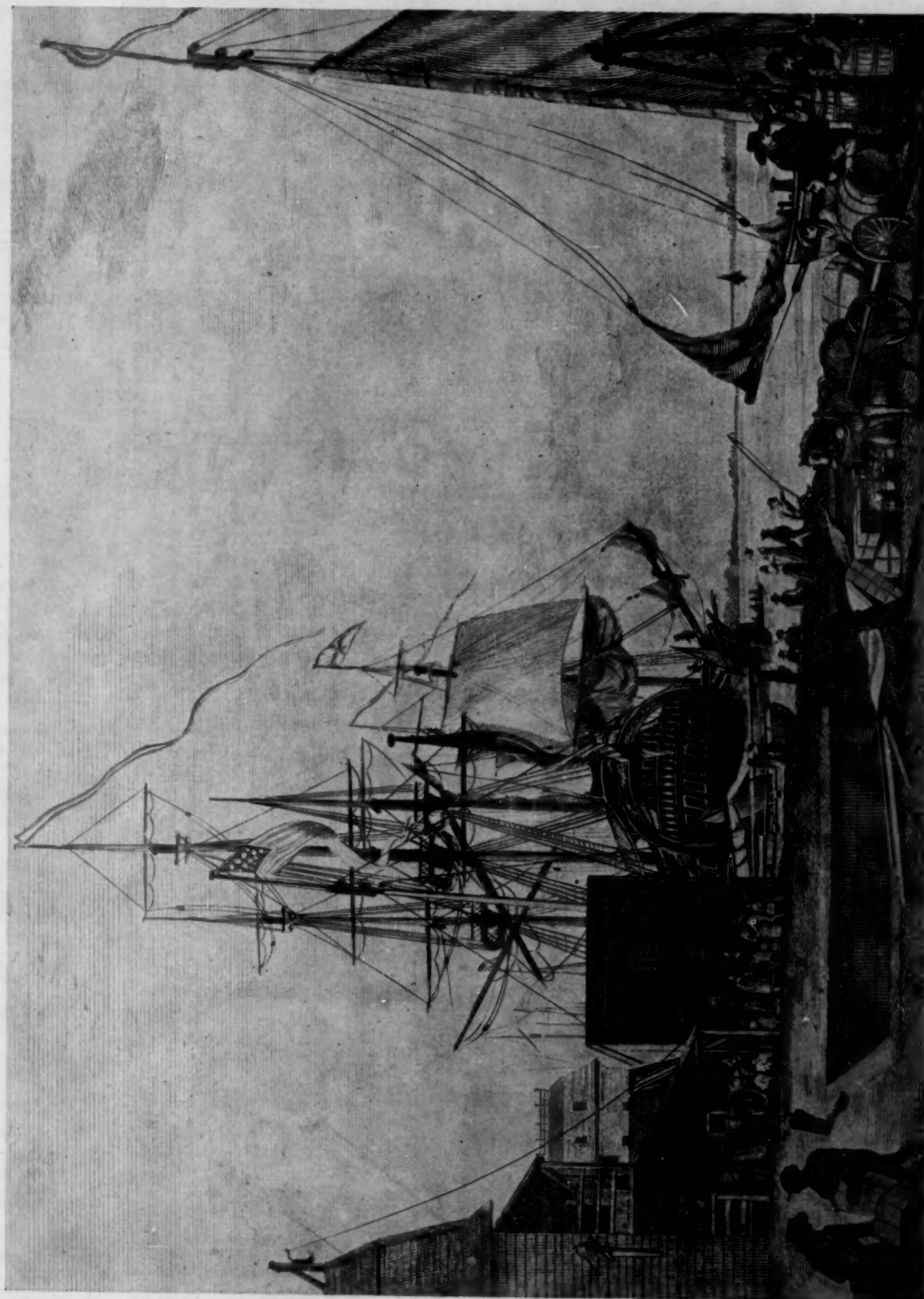
In Testimony whereof we have caused the Seal of the
United States to be hereunto affixed - Witness His Excellency
Thomas Nifflin President this thirtieth day of January in
the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred & Eighty four and in
the Eighth year of the Sovereignty & Independence of the United
States of America.

During the period of the Confederation (1781-1789), attempts were made to open up new sources of commerce to take the place of the British West Indian markets which were now closed to Americans. In 1784, the *Empress of China* sailed from New York to Canton, with a cargo chiefly of ginseng and returned with tea and silk. This is a reproduction of the document given by Congress to Captain John Green of the *Empress of China*, the first vessel flying the American flag to visit China.



By 1799, the White House, the home of the President, was built. The next year, when the government moved from Philadelphia to Washington, President and Mrs. Adams occupied it. The new capital of the United States was located in a region sparsely populated and almost wholly wild.

THE YOUNG REPUBLIC



During this period, Philadelphia was the metropolis of the United States and the greatest commercial city. The picture shows Arch Street wharf and ferry, on the Delaware River. Like Boston, New York, Baltimore, Charleston and other sea towns, the Philadelphia water-front presented a picture of ships whose towering masts cut deeply into the sky.

THE YOUNG REPUBLIC



While the national government was in Philadelphia, the city of Washington, in the federal district of Columbia, was planned as the permanent capital of the United States. The plans were made by Pierre Charles L'Enfant, a French civil engineer and architect. The official plan, as seen above, was issued in 1792. President Washington chose the exact site in a sparsely populated region, not many miles from Mount Vernon, from territory ceded by Maryland and Virginia. The Capital was located on a hill, which was then a thick wood. The lines of latitude and longitude which marked the center were carefully surveyed, and the streets and avenues were laid from this point with mathematical exactness.

Reels: 1, 400 feet, 1000 feet.
Running time: 15 minutes.

This picture is similar to "Conquering the Jungle" but presents more fully scenic surroundings and native life on the Island of Sumatra at the 40,000-acre rubber plantation of the Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company. Habits and customs of the people, views of quaint and little-known villages, inviting brooks and rivers, smoke-crowned volcanoes and other features are shown.

Recreations of the dark-skinned natives, the fortnightly "haribazar," the open-air Oriental entertainment and other diversions give the spectator a "close-up" of the light-hearted islanders. The clubhouse, a social center of Americans and Europeans, the village

cutups on "Main Street" and numerous other side-lights are presented. The sanitary homes, which have replaced the thatched, floorless huts, demonstrate the progress made in living conditions within a few years.

In rubber production activities, the coolies are seen cutting away the forests, burning the trees and brush, and otherwise preparing the way for civilization's conquest of wild territory in the Dutch East Indies.

From a desolate waste vast areas are transformed into fertile rubber plantations as far as the eye can see. Later the tappable trees yield the finest pure white latex, which is gathered by skilled natives, and goes through various processes preparatory to shipment as rubber to the Goodyear factories—rounding out an interesting and instructive chapter of an important phase in a great American industry.

The Maze of Methods

CHARLES H. COLEMAN

Eastern Illinois State Teachers College, Charleston, Illinois

Every "methods conscious" teacher of the social studies realizes the confusion resulting from any effort to familiarize himself with all the methods advanced for his attention. The writer, a teacher of history and political science in a teachers college, has long viewed the onslaught of the methodologists with uncertainty and skepticism. Two years ago he was assigned the social studies methods course offered by the college. Obviously his hazy and Ephraim-like ideas on the subject needed clarification and amplification. He soon discovered that classification was necessary if these were to be achieved.

An examination of the leading texts and monographs in the methods field, including the more recent ones, fails to provide a workable classification of methods with meaning to the inexperienced teacher or to the student preparing to teach. Ernest Horn, in his *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies* (1937), suggests that the social studies methods may be viewed from six points: social purpose, subject matter, the course of study, grade arrangement, modes of inquiry, and equipment. But he does not follow this with a definite classification of specific methods. T. H. Schutte, in his *Teaching the Social Studies on the Secondary School Level* (1938), lists thirteen procedures or methods of instruction and proceeds to classify them into two large groups, the authoritative and the developmental. While suggestive, this classification does not take into account the methods which are largely matters of organization rather than of procedure.

The nearest answer to our problem found in current textbooks is in E. B. Wesley's *Teaching the So-*

cial Studies (1937). Wesley tabulates methods under eleven heads: equipment, approach to social realities, organization of material, teacher purpose, pupil purpose, teacher-pupil relationship, pupil-pupil relationship, pupil participation, the degree of independence of thought, the manner of checking, and lastly, the physical senses. The chief difficulty with this arrangement is the large number of classes. While stimulating and helpful it is too elaborate to be of much immediate practical help to the beginning teacher or to the student in training for teaching. They need to be able to catalog in simple fashion the various suggestions which are thrown at them by textbook authors, instructors, supervisors, and institute lecturers if they are to fit these ideas to their own problems.

The writer has frequently noted a state of uncertainty and confusion in the minds of the students of his methods course, and he has sympathized with them because he is not positive that he is out of the fog himself. In an effort to clarify their thinking and his own he hit upon the device of classifying methods according to their purpose, regardless of their social or philosophical implications. Wesley's tabulation was of assistance in working out that given below. It should be emphasized that it is merely descriptive, and the inclusion of any method or device does not imply either approval or condemnation. The term "method" has been very loosely used, and a strict use of it might rule out many of the items in our classification. But the fact remains that many writers use the term with an even wider connotation than that implied in the following outline.

One advantage of this classification is that it tends to destroy the idea of many students of teaching and teachers themselves that each method must stand alone without relation to any other. The large amount of overlap in the different methods is brought out. It attempts to show that one method of presentation may involve the use of many others and, similarly, that methods of organizing courses and the subject-matter of one course may overlap in like manner.

The classification proceeds from the curriculum to the course to the selection of material in individual courses (parts I-III). There follows a tabulation of methods concerning the organization of class time, the presentation of subject matter, and student activities (parts IV-VI). Lastly is a list of teaching devices which may be used with various methods (part VII).

This outline is given in mimeographed form to the students in the methods class. It has seemed to be helpful to them, and it may be of assistance to others.

SOCIAL STUDIES METHODS CLASSIFICATION

- I. Methods of organizing the various social studies in the curriculum.
 1. Separate courses in the various fields.
 2. Correlation. The relationship between the various fields of learning is emphasized without ignoring subject-matter lines. Correlation may take place in various types of curricular organization.
 3. Concentration. One subject, such as history, becomes the center or "core" of the curriculum and the other subjects are related or "integrated" to it.
 4. Unification. May take either of two forms:
 - (a) Integration. A breakdown of subject-matter lines. Use of material from any or all fields to achieve mastery of a "unit of understanding." Emphasizes interrelationships.
 - (b) Fusion. Similar to integration except that emphasis is on teaching objectives rather than on material studied. Ignores subject-matter divisions.
- II. Methods of organizing the subject-matter of a given course.
 1. Chronological (History). Events presented in the order of their occurrence.
 2. Biographical (History). Events presented around the careers of outstanding individuals.
 3. Logical (Economics, Civics, Sociology). Material arranged in order of assumed natural development.
 4. Topical. Separate topics, more or less isolated. An attempt to select the important phases of a subject, ignoring the rest. Relationships between topics may or may not be stressed. Topics may or may not be taken up chronologically.
 5. Unitary. Broader topics or divisions of the subject are studied. Emphasis on "units of understanding." Tends to slight or ignore chronology. May involve correlation, concentration, integration, or fusion. Units may cut through subject matter lines. Instruction often follows the "Morrison plan."
- III. Methods of selecting material for students to study.
 1. Single text. May include workbook.
 2. Multiple texts. May include workbook.
 3. Workbook.
 4. The "Winnetka" plan. Objective selection on "functional" basis.
 5. Assigned reading. Reading may be for any of five purposes: (1) understanding, (2) memorization, (3) to locate specific data, (4) to build up general background (rapid), and (5) for enjoyment.
 - (a) Collateral. In addition to text. May be assigned parallel to text, or for reports, term-papers, debates, panel discussions.
 - (b) Non-collateral, without text. May be used in connection with workbook. Frequently found in connection with "laboratory" method. Either use of collateral reading may involve the use of notebooks.
- IV. Methods of organizing the time of the class.
 1. Single period. Classroom only.
 2. Split period. Classroom and library or "laboratory."
 3. Alternate periods. Classroom and library or "laboratory."
 4. Double periods. Classroom and library or "laboratory."
 5. Non-period. "Laboratory." May or may not involve classroom.
- V. Methods of presenting the subject matter.
 1. Lecture by the teacher, supplementing the textbook.
 2. Class recitation. Question-and-answer. May take the form of an oral "quiz," also discussion questions. Based on textbook or books.
 3. Class discussion. May take the form of a socialized recitation.
 4. Socialized recitation. Committee plan, class leader plan and panel discussion plan. May involve student reports, debates, panel discussions, etc.
 5. Student reports.
 6. Debates.
 7. Panel discussions.
 8. Use of visual aids (see VII).

9. Class or group visits or excursions (see VII).
 10. Lectures by non-class members. May or may not be in classroom. By other teachers or by experts in various fields, office-holders, etc.
- VI. Methods of organizing student activity.
1. Projects (see VII).
 2. Problems. May involve student reports, term-papers, debates, panel discussions.
 3. "Laboratory" method. Involves individualized or group instruction.
 4. "Contract" method. May involve laboratory method and unitary organization.
 5. The "Dalton" plan. Involves both contract and laboratory methods.
 6. Differentiated assignments. "Block" method is one form of this.
 7. The "Winnetka" plan. Highly socialized and individualized. Involves objective selection of subject-matter.
 8. "Long unit" assignment. Avoids daily assignment.
 9. Supervised study method.
 10. Socialized recitation.
 11. Debates, panel discussions, etc.
- VII. Teaching devices. Strictly speaking devices are not "methods," although methods involve many devices, some of which are associated with particular methods.
1. Use of visual aids:
 - (a) Maps. Wall, series, black-board, atlas, desk, outline, teacher-made, student-made.
 - (b) Globes. Classroom, desk.
 - (c) Pictures. Wall, desk, collections bound or unbound, student-made, student collected.
 - (d) Cartoons. Printed or student-made.
 - (e) Diagrams and charts. Printed, teacher-made, student-made. In connection with notebooks, work-books, black-board and bulletin board.
 - (f) Facsimiles.
 - (g) Models, relics, etc.
 - (h) Projectors. Slides, opaque projectors, micro-film, motion picture film.
 2. Visits or excursions. To public institutions, governing bodies in session, factories, historical remains, museums, natural phenomena, etc.
 3. Projects. Bulletin board, class newspaper, model making, collections of objects, poster-making, etc.
 4. Class dramatization, songs, dances. May involve costumes.
 5. Debates, panel discussions.
 6. The radio. By class groups, or individuals. May be in classroom.
 7. Public motion pictures, the theater, public lectures.
 8. Notebooks. Used in connection with the above, and in connection with various other student activities. See VI.
 9. Student reports. On reading, excursions, and projects. May take the form of elaborate term-papers.

Obviously every teacher uses some of the methods and devices here listed, and each one is used by some teachers. Those who wish may add devices and method variations of their own. The purpose of this tabulation is to bring together, in a more or less logical arrangement, a relatively complete reference list which will be helpful to the teacher attempting to find a path through the maze of methods.

This classification is used in the writer's methods course as a basis for a large part of the class discussion. Each student has three texts: A. C. and D. H. Bining, *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools*; E. B. Wesley, *Teaching the Social Studies*; and Henry Johnson, *Teaching of History*, and assignments are made in these texts to parallel the various parts of the classification. In addition an extended "reserve shelf" makes available to the students a wide selection from the literature of social studies methods.

Government Documents Come of Age

NATHANIEL STEWART

Librarian, Dillard University, New Orleans, Louisiana

The case for the legitimate inclusion of government documents as part of the instructional equipment in the secondary school has never been sufficiently advanced. The teaching profession might well consider itself professionally retarded in regard to the problem of the study of documents and its poten-

tialities in the high school program. Whatever efforts have been made are traceable to the library field. Now and then, the findings of a significant study suggest the possibility of bringing the question to the foreground. Probably the most salient feature of Kathryn Miller's recent publication, *The Selection of*

United States Serial Documents for Liberal Arts Colleges,¹ is rather conclusive evidence that government documents have definitely been incorporated among the tools for study in the liberal arts college. The enthusiastic acknowledgment on the part of college professors, instructors, and college librarians is indicative of the fact that government documents have come of age. Indeed, they are destined to take their place beside the textbook, collateral readings, and the periodical, and to function as a significant instrument in the laboratory, the study, the lecture hall, and the library.

Whether we chose to designate it as a definite trend or simply to regard it as a normal shift in the utilization of source materials, one thing is quite clear—the humanization of government documents is in progress. History is being rewritten in the light of this realization. The monastic qualities which have so long characterized government publications and their users are beginning to disappear. There was a time, and not very remote, when such material was made available only to the research worker, and was used in cautious seclusion. Only those persons engaged in “super-study,” if a term may be coined, would dare contend with such reading matter. As this state of affairs continued, the utilization of government documents took on a mystical complexion, and its users were aptly regarded as intellectual isolationists. What was once deemed as a field of study over which research assistants exercised an academic monopoly, has been taken over by the university, and now has finally been realized as an indispensable medium for learning in the liberal arts college, as Miss Miller’s study discloses. A most pertinent question, therefore, is its valid introduction in the secondary school program of instruction.

Our concern with the place of government publications in the instructional equipment of the secondary school must be directed into two distinct spheres: for those students who plan to continue with their academic studies in college, and for those whose formal education will terminate with high school graduation. More specifically, we must be reassured that the method of instruction or the degree of emphasis will not vary in the instruction of either group; rather, the cardinal consideration here is the probable effects of such instruction on each of these groups after their exodus from the high school. Reliable statistics released by the United States Office of Education disclose that slightly more than half of our high school students continue their formal education, while the other half enters upon some gainful pursuit immediately or shortly after graduation. For all practical purposes, therefore, the absolute effect in terms of numbers is not important; the relative effects

upon each of these groups in their subsequent roles in society is the paramount consideration.

A consideration of this first group, the prospective college students, immediately suggests the breadth of the problem and the possibilities inherent in the concentrated use of documents during the period of secondary school training. If the introduction of government documents in the instructional program of the liberal arts college has been successful, the efforts to stimulate their fullest use has not met with comparable success. The disturbed mental set with which the college student approaches documentary sources is still in evidence. Instructors and librarians have found it most difficult, indeed, to destroy the poor attitude which is exhibited by college students when required to fulfill an assignment necessitating the use of documents. The pugnacious spirit assumed by the average college student, as if he were ready to contend with the enemy, is often amusing to the librarian. The college librarian who has witnessed students go into a convulsive state in their attempt to work with documents can well testify to this fact. The fear and trepidation with which college students anticipate the use of such assignments is both astonishing and lamentable.

However long we may speculate as to the underlying causes of the college student’s phobia for documentary sources, there appears to be one plausible explanation. Essentially, the answer is to be found in the failure of our secondary schools to provide the proper orientation in the significance and use of government documents, before the student enters upon his collegiate studies. Perhaps the entire problem might be resolved in this manner: the college student has never been primed in the use of documents, and now finds himself frustrated in the attempt to cope with this novel source of learning. A comparison of this situation with that of the use of the textbook, the supplementary readings, and the periodical will serve to clarify the problem. College students are able to master the more difficult texts, to absorb the voluminous supplementary readings, and to comprehend the periodical literature simply because they have been “warmed up” to these tasks during their high school days. True, their high school education was not deliberately designed toward this end, but the transfer of this hierarchy of reading readily manifests itself in their college work. That similar results could be produced through the early training in the use of government documents is quite conceivable. Therefore, the core of the problem lies in this “warming up” process. As long as college students continue to face government documents as a novel piece of instructional apparatus, they will continue to be frustrated and discouraged in such learning situations. At this point, it must be made clear that this is no attempt to make every high school student a poten-

¹ (New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1937).

tial research expert, but to prepare or prime students for the intelligent and confident use of documents in their future college careers.

In determining the effects of the proposed instruction on our second group, those students whose formal education ceases with graduation from high school, the problem takes on even greater proportions. Our attention must be focused on this segment of the high school student body which forms the basis of our future "average public." The most pertinent question facing our educators today is how to educate against propaganda, commercial and sociological, and thus counteract the forces which maliciously indoctrinate the adolescent mind. There remains no doubt that our bewildered youth, with its limited and mollycoddled educational training, is the easiest target for professional propagandists. One of the strongest indictments against the progressive education movement is its endorsement of a "laissez-faire" policy in the realm of reading. Whatever guidance does exist, it has been initiated through the more conscientious high school librarians. It is imperative, in these days when our public is literally flooded with propagandist literature of all shades, to direct deliberately the early growth of formative and moldable young people. To allow a "laissez-faire" development of reading in the crucial stages of growth invariably calls for long and serious therapeutic measures at a later date.

Training in the use of documents offers a desirable type of immunity to the infectious character of propaganda. Newspapers and periodicals are usually the chief instruments of such deception. The newspaper which seeks to represent a particular class or segment of the population is as guilty of distortion as is the newspaper which seeks to support the vested interests. Equally repugnant is the position of periodical literature. Publishers of magazines are constantly exercising their peripheral vision, keeping their eyes both on their contributors and their advertising patrons. The reading public, especially our youth, is at the mercy of publishers who add or delete, depending upon the degree to which an article might precipitate the withdrawal of an advertising account. If the dilemma of the newspaper and periodical publishers is a serious one, the effect on our youth is even more serious. Adolescents are at a plastic age during which their opinions can be molded without much difficulty; a high school student body is excellent fertile soil for the planting of commercial, political, and sociological ballyhoo. It is our hope to indicate to what extent training in the use of authoritative sources might serve to counteract these forces.

The magnitude of the problem, as it affects those out of school, is best revealed in a recent article dealing with the problem of distressed youth. In a most enlightening manner, there is brought to our atten-

tion that fact that "3,000,000 youths between the ages of 16 and 25 out of school are unemployed; 25 to 40 per cent of all homeless are under 21 years of age; 1,500,000 people between the ages of 16 and 21 are in families who were on relief in 1934." The writer observes that "these folks are the butt of an economic and social maladjustment which they cannot understand. They are bewildered, frustrated, and resentful. This is fertile ground for breeding malice and hatred."² Propagandists and rabble-rousers find their most lucrative bait and their most willing recruits among such youths.

Deliberate efforts to combat the viciousness of propagandist literature should begin with instruction in the use of documentary or other authoritative sources. The importance of instructing our young people in the art of determining true facts and statements from those which are colored and distorted, cannot be overestimated. That newspapers and periodicals are ever intent upon the crystallization of public opinion is a truism. Facts and statements are clouded with editorial comments, judicious omissions, and reportorial liberties.

Of all publications, perhaps none offer a more satisfactory field for the objective exploration of a major problem than do documents. The text of a trade agreement, the provisions of an international treaty, the decision of a judicial body, the quality of consumer products, the cost of armament preparation, the concentration of crime—all are open for examination. Documents probably offer the most detached and neutral printed matter; it remains for one to comprehend the material, determine its meaning and implications, and formulate his judgment in the light of genuine findings. It is naïve to assume that the study of documents alone offer such opportunity. It is simply maintained that they represent the most neutral ground (at least in those few democratic countries still in existence at this writing) for the study of some of our major problems, and should be used to fullest advantage to offset the venom of propagandist literature. Of course, one might even rightfully question the validity of statements and statistics in such documents, or even skeptically remark that a government will print only such matter which will reflect the integrity of the operation of the affairs of state. However, no claim is made to call for the substitution of the government press for the public press by any stretch of the imagination.

The fifty per cent of our youth whose education terminates with high school graduation, diluted and sugar-coated as that education might be, are the wards of society. It is this group, and will probably always continue to be this group, who comprise the

² Dorothy M. McAllister, "The Library and the Youth Problem," *Wilson Bulletin for Librarians*, XII (February, 1938), 384.

bulk of our "average public" within a few years. This "average public" must be trained in the art of discriminating between fact and fiction, and between genuine opinion and propaganda. Particularly in these difficult days, it is the grave responsibility of the high school teacher and the librarian to guide our potential "average public" in efficient fact finding and the intelligent interpretation of the printed page.

Unless our secondary schools cease sending forth

half their student body to college with a morbid phobia for documentary sources, and unless they succeed in implanting in the other half an immunity against the flood of commercial and sociological propaganda, the schools shall have fallen short of the rightful objectives. The etiology of document phobia having been traced, our major task is now to administer the effective therapy; the psychiatrists must, of necessity, be our high school librarians.

An Experiment in Building a Radio Script

M. A. SCHMECK

Midland Senior High School, Midland, Michigan

Departing from the traditional is something everyone likes, to a greater or lesser degree, and high school students are no exception to the rule—especially when this departure is a movement away from the traditional manner of studying history. With this in mind, a section of American history at the Midland Senior High School expressed a desire to study the period dealing with the ratification of the Constitution by a socialized procedure involving cooperative research, organization and the presentation of a short historical radio script. It was planned to present the completed work to the school through the medium of our room-to-room public address system.

We do not claim that our plan was entirely satisfactory. But even failing to make the most economical use of our time proved to be of some value. This was because the realization of that fact by the students themselves helped to develop a critical attitude in the whole group and made apparent the need for self-evaluation not only in this project, but in any future projects in which they might participate.

The activity followed lines much like the following:

(1) From their study of the Constitutional Convention the students had become acquainted with the most prominent men, and women of the period and by vote decided upon the following characters: George and Martha Washington; Franklin; Madison; and Alexander and Mrs. Hamilton. (The feminine parts were added at the insistence of the girls, backed by a majority of the boys.)

(2) Deciding upon the procedure after some debate, two or three days were spent in research. Each student expressed his desire to work on one particular individual. Nearly three complete periods were spent in research in the library and in the classroom.

(3) On the fourth day we reached one of our "critical periods." How should we start the script? Where was the scene to be laid? Who was to write

the script? After some discussion involving critical evaluation of student suggestions the scene was set. It was to be the living room of Washington's home. The characters were weekend guests. The script was to be started as a cooperative activity with the actual writing to be in the hands of three of the students (elected).

(4) The fifth day, volunteers (one from each character-study group) grouped themselves on one side of the classroom and with the notes collected by the whole class before them tried to develop the script by spontaneous conversation with suggestions freely offered by the rest of the class when a lull appeared.

One of the boys (taking Hamilton's part) started things by exclaiming emphatically, "I tell you, Mr. Franklin, this plan *will* succeed!" Mr. Franklin immediately replied in an argument-provoking tone, "Oh, I'm not so sure about that." That splendid start keyed the rest of the class to such a pitch that the general sketch of just what the script would include was worked out by the end of the sixth day. Then realizing that the end of the cooperative stage of developing the script had been reached, it was decided that the actual conversation was to be put into the hands of the script writers for final development.

This latter decision was reached only after spirited debate in which some students said that if the whole class could not participate, the activity should be dropped. The majority decided however that there was no reason why they should not do something else while the script writers worked out the irregularities in the script. Probably most teachers realize the questions which faced me.

What should I have the rest of the class do? If they started on the next unit the three script writers would fall behind. Extra-credit work was already assigned and finished. A most satisfactory solution was reached when it was found that most of the class did not know how to use the *Reader's Guide*. One day was

spent in explaining the use of the *Guide* and then having the entire class go to the library, look up some particular subject in which they were interested and read that article. The next day the members of the class again went to the library and enjoyed a period of "free reading." I told them they could read anything they found of special interest, and suggested they take notes if they found something they would like to report to the class. Upon investigation I found they read anything from *Popular Science Magazine* to historical biography. All agreed it was a pleasurable experience, perhaps because it excused them from formal class activity.

(5) The ninth day the copies of the script were ready. Volunteers for each part went to a different room and broadcast part of the play to our room. We had two complete casts plus four candidates for the announcer's job. The students in the classroom evaluated each candidate and at the conclusion of the broadcasts elected the cast which was to present the play.

(6) The tenth day the play was presented. The script lasted about seventeen minutes, with the whole play presented in a very professional manner: Musical introduction (victrola); announcement; bit of music; setting of the scene by the announcer; a little music fading out as Hamilton's ringing voice proclaimed, "I tell you, Mr. Franklin, this plan *will* succeed!"

Written, unsigned student criticism was frank and generally expressed approval of the activity. Some of the representative criticisms were:

"I gained much information from what we have been doing. I think it was beneficial to all because we became more acquainted with their personal side of life."

"To be perfectly honest with myself, I feel that it has been rather a waste of time. I don't believe anyone could stick me on any questions about the Constitutional Convention or ratification, but why does that event have to be plastered into my brain?"

"I have gotten a great deal out of what we have been doing during the past two weeks because I have learned a great many things about some of the men in our history book other than their political views. Also, I enjoyed very much going to the library and reading."

"I think we all had a certain amount of fun, enjoyment and education out of this method. This play may have helped other classes too."

"During the past two weeks I did not get much benefit out of our work, although I enjoyed it. One reason I did not get much out of it is that I did not put much in it."

"I believe that almost everyone got something out of the play whether they sensed it or not. It took

longer to develop than it should have, but it gave us an idea on how to write another. We also learned how to do reference work in the library."

"I think that the whole class has received some benefit from our past two weeks work whether they realize it or not. They couldn't very well have looked up references, offered suggestions to the script-writers, etc., without taking a little of it in. I don't believe the script writers got any more out of it than did the rest of the class. P. S. I lost five pounds in the last two weeks!"

The writer welcomes any suggestions and criticisms from reader of the *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*.

ANNOUNCER'S SCRIPT

Music . . .

Announce: Hello, friends. [Pause]

This afternoon through the medium of a short historical playlet we are going to reveal to you some little known facts about well-known people.

During the next few minutes you are going to learn of Franklin's thoughts on the ratification of the Constitution; of Madison's stand on slavery; of Mrs. Washington's amusing revelations of her husband's favorite pastimes; of Hamilton's spirited defense of the Constitution and some of the arguments which he put forth in his now famous *Federalist Papers*.

We should like to announce that the script to be used in this playlet is the result of coöperative research, organization and arrangement by a group of American history students. The script is entirely original and the resemblance of the members of the cast to characters, now dead or living, is entirely intentional.

Music . . .

The Cast includes:

George Washington . . .	played by Alfred Munger
Martha Washington	Kay Kohls
Benjamin Franklin	Wayne Winchell
Alexander Hamilton	Al Myres
Mrs. Hamilton	Mary Walker
James Madison	Terrance McGowan

The Scene: [pause]

The living room at Mount Vernon. A group of Washington's guests have been engaged in a *heated* argument on the ratification of the Constitution.

Music . . .

A HISTORICAL RADIO PLAYLET SCRIPT

Hamilton: I tell you, Mr. Franklin, this plan *will* succeed!

Franklin: I doubt very much if it will.

Hamilton: Ah, but what of the small states which have already ratified?

Franklin: True, the small states have ratified readily enough, but don't forget there are more people to convince in the larger states.

Madison: You forget the way Pennsylvania ratified and at present we have word that New York City threatens to ratify alone if the state of New York will not do so.

Hamilton: Yes, it looks like that may happen, too.

Franklin: [heatedly] It may succeed for a time, but it will eventually crumble and lead to despotism.

Washington: Please, Mr. Franklin! [pause] Your health!

Franklin: Yes, I believe I would do well to watch my blood pressure. I, a man of eighty-one, and outnumbered as I am by these younger gentlemen, must expend thrice as much energy as they.

Washington: You do well, Mr. Franklin. However, I do not agree with you on the subject of ratification.

Martha: Yes, Mr. Franklin, you do excellently against such odds; however, I too believe that the Constitution will be readily ratified. Don't you think so Mrs. Hamilton?

Mrs. Hamilton: Well . . .

Mr. Hamilton: Mrs. Hamilton is not particularly interested in the field of politics.

Washington: Martha and I have always had mutual interest in it.

Mrs. Hamilton: It's true that I don't know much about politics, but I'm very much interested in the "Ratification Ball" they're holding next week. I suppose you will be going too?

Martha: Yet, I only hope that George doesn't decide to dance all evening with the same young lady, again.

Washington: A-hem . . . [pause] Mr. Hamilton what are the federalists' views toward the adoption of the Constitution? I am sure you and your colleagues have some fine points in favor of ratification.

Franklin: They'll have to think up some pretty good ones, by jove!

Madison: I don't think they'll have any difficulty in doing that, as the reasons are so numerous.

Hamilton: Quite right, Mr. Madison. We all remember how John Hancock had Massachusetts ratify because he was led to believe that he might become Vice President. Then too, those farmers in western Virginia look forward to its adoption as the beginning of a great new era for them as well as for the other twelve states.

Franklin: True enough, but how about Patrick Henry and his friends in western Virginia who believe the preamble should read, "We the States" instead of "We the People?"

Hamilton: I believe the preamble is correct as it stands, and that "We the People" refers to a more centralized government than "We the States" which implies that the states come before the strong central government.

Madison: The trouble lies, gentlemen, in keeping the union in one piece after the Constitution is adopted. A pure democracy tends to break itself up, for it is ruled not according to justice and the rights of the minority, but by the superior force of an interested and overbearing majority.

Washington: Yes, there is truth in your reasoning. However, liberty, once it has taken root, grows rapidly. Furthermore, we shall not have a pure democracy, providing the Constitution is adopted. You know that we shall have a republic, a representative democracy.

Mrs. Hamilton: I don't quite understand the difference between a pure democracy and a representative democracy.

Hamilton: Well, Betsy, a representative democracy is the election of delegates by the people, and these delegates in turn make the laws, while in a pure democracy the people themselves make the laws.

But why talk government all evening? Please, now, let's refrain from politics and the Constitution for a while. The evening is half spent and we have had nothing more or less than a debate on adopting the Constitution. When the years have passed, I should much rather look back on a quiet evening with our gracious host and my friends than a heated argument on governmental affairs.

Franklin: Politics are important, but surely we have topics more interesting to all.

Madison: Perhaps a word from the ladies would enlighten our conversation.

Martha: I have no particular choice of subjects for the moment. What would you suggest, Mrs. Hamilton?

Mrs. Hamilton: Well . . . I should like to hear of some of Mr. Franklin's experiments. They must be exciting.

Madison: I applaud Mrs. Hamilton's choice. I can think of no more fascinating a subject than one of Mr. Franklin's experiments.

Franklin: Fascinating, yes, and thrilling too, but not always as enduring as one might expect. For one moment's success may lead to the next moment's failure. If he is heralded by success, he is doubted by the mass, while one grave error may make him food for the worms.

Washington: Quite true, but on the whole, your scientific ventures have proved very interesting. What about these new mineral fertilizers? I hear that you have finally persuaded the Pennsylvania farmers to utilize this new material in the interests

of increased production and improved crops.
 Franklin: Yes, and I think that the use of the fertilizers will increase. However, I have invented something which I think will be of great interest to you ladies.
 Ladies: What? What?
 Franklin: A mangle!
 Mrs. Hamilton: A mangle? [reflectively]
 Franklin: Yes, you know . . . an ironing device which will make it possible for you ladies to have your sheets and flat pieces ironed out much more quickly and easily.
 Martha: Excellent! What does it look like?
 Mrs. Hamilton: How is it operated?
 Franklin: Well, it's not quite ready for the public, but I'll send you one in advance.
 Mrs. Hamilton: Will you Mr. Franklin? Oh, thank you. When will it go on the market?
 Martha: Your generosity will be greatly appreciated as the colored servants seem to be having a great deal of difficulty in producing a good job of ironing our finer pieces.
 Franklin: You are both very welcome. I don't know definitely when it will go on the market, but I should say within one or two months.
 Martha: Speaking of our colored servants reminds me about those colored slaves who were ill down on Plantation 3. How are they progressing, George?
 Washington: They're doing fine. Dr. O'Hara said that they will be fully recovered in no time at all.
 Madison: I have often heard that you were just in your treatment of slaves and afforded them the best of care when they were ill or otherwise in need of help.
 Hamilton: A tribute to you, Mr. Washington, but on the whole I believe in Negro emancipation.
 Madison: That is a much argued point, Mr. Hamilton. However, when slaves receive good care and treatment such as our host gives them, I don't see that they have any just cause to complain.
 Martha: It has always been George's policy to give his slaves the finest care and the best treatment that he could afford.
 Franklin: I've noticed that, Mrs. Washington and if all slave-owners followed that excellent example, Negro emancipation would not be forthcoming as a vital issue for many, many years.
 Mrs. Hamilton: I imagine they could be quite useful.
 Martha: I don't know how we would get all the work completed if it wasn't for our colored help.
 George: Yes, Mrs. Hamilton, they are practically indispensable on these large plantations. I need their services very much and for that reason I believe in returning to them fair treatment and a wholesome living.
 Hamilton: Mr. Washington, I see your point, but

most people in the North don't see it that way because the farms are small and the slaves are few in number.

Martha: But the conditions are just reversed down here in Virginia. Without Negroes, it would be impossible for us to maintain a plantation. It is essential to the southern agricultural development to have an abundance of ready labor. Not only do we need them for work in the fields, but they are of immeasurable value as house servants.

Madison: The average slave seems very contented in his present condition. I see no reason why there should be emancipation, if the situation continues as it is now.

Franklin: We'll leave that up to the future to decide . . . [Franklin interrupted by clock striking]. What? Ten o'clock already! If you gentlemen are going on a fox hunt tomorrow you had better be getting to bed.

Hamilton: Quite right, Mr. Franklin. By the way, what are you doing tomorrow?

Franklin: (chuckling) Oh, haven't you heard? I'm going to teach your wife how to play the harmonica.

Mrs. Hamilton: Yes, isn't Mr. Franklin a dear! He says I can learn in no time at all. Oh, Mr. Franklin, won't you please play something for us before we retire?

All: Yes, yes, please.

Franklin: (lightly) Well now, I'd be glad to. You know, I get more fun out of this than I do out of some of my more serious endeavors. What would you like to hear?

All: Yankee Doodle, Yankee Doodle.

Franklin: Ah, yes. The tune which bids fair to be our national anthem. Well, here it is . . . [plays spiritedly].

All: [at close] Bravo! Bravo! More!

Franklin: I am afraid I shall have to decline your request for an encore.

Washington: Perhaps we would all profit by retiring, as we have had a full evening of discussing science, slavery, farming and the inevitable . . . politics.

Franklin: Ah, yes. Politics indeed. Only I still differ in my opinions as to the possibility of early ratification of the Constitution.

Madison: Mr. Franklin, I thought sure we had convinced you by now that the Constitution would be readily adopted. I'm sure that we shall soon prove our points.

Franklin: I hope that ratification will soon become a reality, but I have my fears. Furthermore, I still persist in my belief that this government cannot function through the years for the good of *all* the people.

Washington: Power, under the Constitution, will

always be in the hands of the people, so we must not despair. The game is yet in our own hands. To play it well is all we have to do.

Franklin: I agree to this Constitution, with all its faults if they are such, because I think a general government necessary for us and there is no form of government that may not be blessed to the people if well administered. I believe, further, that this is likely to be well administered for a

period of years; but then I am afraid the people shall become so corrupted as to need a despotic government . . . being no longer capable to governing themselves.

Hamilton: [Laughs lightly] Well, Mr. Franklin! There may be some truth in what you say, but I'm simply going to repeat what I said earlier in the evening . . . [very seriously and forcefully] *This plan will succeed!*

News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF

Head, Social Studies Department, Girard College, Philadelphia

METHODS AND GOALS

In *Educational Administration and Supervision* for last November, Monroe and Marks conclude their examination of general methods of teaching (see this department, February issue of *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*). In this final article, the merits of various methods are compared: "General Methods of Teaching Evaluated: Results of Research." Conclusions are tentative because slight dependence can be placed, as yet, upon experiments designed to show the worth of given methods. Assured judgments are also difficult because of such factors as the shortness of time for carrying out experiments, and such uncontrolled elements as teacher enthusiasm and skill, inherent differences in the subject-matter fields themselves, and the weaknesses of programs for testing outcomes other than information and skills.

With these limitations, Monroe and Marks nevertheless reach some interesting conclusions. They find that the classical, much criticized methods of the lecture and recitation frequently yield results that are hardly inferior to those of the newer, more favored methods. The project method and such laboratory methods as the Dalton and the Winnetka plans appear to be superior to the recitation method. An important reason for the superiority is that "a method of teaching which recognizes individual differences and emphasizes student responsibility is more likely to be effective than one which does not take these factors into consideration." The resourceful teacher, however, can provide for student responsibility and individual differences in any method, while no method guarantees that these things will be done. Recitation teaching may be excellent, and project teaching may be poor. Although scientific evidence for evaluating methods is both fragmentary and inconclusive, it is certain that no method is proof

against the inefficient teacher and no method need necessarily be a poor one in the hands of a capable, resourceful teacher.

Dean Ernest O. Melby, in the leading article of the December issue of *The Clearing House* ("Authoritarianism: Enslaving Yoke of Nations and Schools"), draws a fine contrast between democracy and authoritarianism. Older pupils, as well as teachers, will find their understanding of the principles and consequences of authoritarianism and democracy clarified. "Democracy," says Dean Melby, "exhibits faith in the *masses of people*; authoritarianism lacks this faith and pins its hopes on the *few*—on the *great*. Democracy gives high place to individual human values, while [authoritarianism] gives priority to the state and the creed. Democracy respects personality—authoritarianism does not. Democracy depends for its growth and progress upon change while authoritarianism resists change. Democracy and authoritarianism are thus two opposite ways of looking at people, at government, at home life, at religion, at education and at international affairs." It is not necessary to look at foreign governments to find authoritarianism. It is as prevalent in democracies: in schools, in churches, and in the economic organization. To combat it, teachers must be tireless in explaining to youth the nature and the worth of democracy and the democratic way of life.

In *The Journal of the National Education Association* for January, the distinguished sociologist, Charles A. Ellwood offers pertinent criticisms of teaching which teachers should ponder ("What Shall We Do With Our Schools?"). Educational activity, it seems to him, tends too much to overlook three important conditions in the modern world: (1) "The increasing social interdependence of all classes, nations, and races. Interhuman relations have . . . be-

come the great problem of our time." (2) The increasing conflict between human groups. (3) The lack of cooperation between the greater groups of men. Principally as a result of invention, modern life requires friendly cooperation if the higher social values are to be preserved, whether in religion and morals, in science and art, or in education. Much that lingers on in our day from the past is now dangerous: war, racial hate, class exploitation, and nationalistic isolation.

This lag is evident in education. It is still common practice to be concerned in thought and procedure primarily with the creation of individualistic skills and material achievements. Natural sciences and their applications occupy a larger place in educational activity than interhuman relations. And racketeering, chauvinism, corruption, and racial hate grow apace. "Only a slight knowledge of human psychology is needed to show that instruction in foreign languages, mathematics, and the physical sciences will contribute little directly to the solution of problems of living together." Only the social studies are helpful here, but generally they too are treated merely factually, "without stimulating the thinking and the vision of the student or producing noticeable effects upon his character." To accomplish this, it is necessary to awaken the social imagination of the pupil. "The whole object in teaching the social subjects must be to awaken an efficient social imagination in the pupil which will enable him to put himself in the place of persons in other classes, nations, and races.

Another criticism made by Professor Ellwood is that activity is overstressed. All human beings, and children especially, learn largely through language. Yet schools tend to disregard communication with others and to concentrate on doing. Perhaps that is the influence of the machine age, which emphasizes manipulation. But so much in social life is learned by imagination and not by doing. "I predict," he says, "that the education of the future will teach the young that they are educated just in proportion as they can, through their imaginations, identify themselves with the life of all humanity. This implies that fundamental information concerning our world must be given to the child as material upon which his imagination may work."

Moreover, partly because the scientist avoids evaluations, teachers have been confining themselves unduly to giving information about the world and have avoided teaching social values. Children need help in discovering values, and social science must not be divorced from values. At least three objectives may be held for a socialized education: social intelligence, a sense of social honor, and public spirit. The report of the committee of the Mississippi Education Association showing the ignorance of Negro life that white children display, which is briefly described

below, illustrates what Professor Ellwood means by social intelligence. Physicians exemplify the sense of social honor, and men like Lincoln objectify public spirit. These things can be taught, just as languages and mathematics are taught.

FOR THE TEACHER

The Journal of the National Education Association for January carries a long editorial by Joy Elmer Morgan on "Human Liberty and the New Feudalism." Inspired by Walter Prescott Webb's *Divided We Stand*, the editor paints a picture of the new feudalism which the growth of the corporation has imposed upon the nation. It is a commonplace among students that such growth is due less to the Industrial Revolution than to existing law, and Dr. Morgan recounts how the Fourteenth Amendment provided the soil in which corporations flourished. The result is a new feudalism, with economic control but, unlike medieval feudalism, without economic responsibility for its workers. Our feudalism is an extra-legal entity, inspired by profits more than by social responsibilities and dominating government and other social institutions.

The editorial traces the principal steps in the rise of the great corporations and shows them today, entrenched behind privilege, usurping the power of government and unbalancing economic opportunity in the nation. That development is not the fault of men, so much as of a system that law has helped to create. The result is a problem, and schools can help to solve this problem by describing its features and building a public opinion favorable to a revision of the laws and procedures that encourage economic feudalism.

During the latter part of 1938, *The New Republic* ran a series of articles on "Books That Changed Our Minds." From it the editors culled a master list of such books and began, in the issue of January 11, to review them. In that issue, Lewis Mumford evaluates Spengler's *The Decline of the West*. The second review in the issue of January 18, is an appreciative discussion of the works of John Dewey ("Dewey: Master of the Commonplace"). The third, in the issue of February 1, is Charles A. Beard's evaluation of Frederick Jackson Turner's famous essay, *The Significance of the Frontier in American History*. This series is especially valuable for teachers.

Recently, the Mississippi Education Association investigated the question, "What does the graduate of the public high school, who has mastered his textbooks, know about the Negro?" The results of this investigation in Mississippi are reported in *The Journal of the National Education Association* for January. High school graduates, it was learned, know virtually nothing of the life, the work, and the achievements of the Negro, although Negroes live

everywhere about them. Their textbooks tell them virtually nothing about the subject, and the traditional race prejudice thrives unhampered. The Southerners who made the investigation conclude: "Your Committee feels that the curriculum offerings of the public schools should give to every student the information which will help him to understand his environment, to make the student a socially efficient citizen. In Mississippi the environment includes the Negro, and information on the Negro should be a part of the planned program of the schools. . . . Until revision of the textbooks to give understanding of the Negro . . . may be had, we recommend supplementing existing textbooks with special materials" which will help youth to understand the origins and achievements of the Negro.

A Joint Committee on Folk Arts is now engaged in the study of American folk arts. Folk music, folk tales, games, dances, rituals, and other forms of folk art are being recorded in drawings, photographs, printed form, and phonograph records. The material will be indexed in the Library of Congress and deposited in leading institutions in various parts of the country. Publication should begin in the spring. Dr. B. A. Botkin, director of the Folklore Studies of the Federal Writers' Project of the WPA, is chairman of the committee.

FOR THE CLASSROOM

More and more, the problems of a stationary population are attracting attention. Now that the interesting pen of Stuart Chase has been busy with the matter, it is likely to receive wider popular notice. In *The Atlantic Monthly* for February he takes stock of the situation, under the title, "Population Going Down." At the same time, in the January issue of the *Journal of Adult Education*, the noted sociologist, William F. Ogburn, examines the problem ("As Our Population Changes"). In these articles high school students will find the trends in birth rates and death rates, the factors or causes at work, and the effects upon government, business, and education which will result from the dislocations within age groupings. For the teacher, an interesting sidelight is shed on the problem of a diminishing population growth by the article in the same number of *The Atlantic Monthly* on "Men, Women, and Hate." Written by one of our most prominent psychiatrists, Dr. Karl A. Menninger, it supplies some startling conclusions about the relation of birth rates to the kind of culture that prevails in a society.

A few years ago, the manager of the Kansas State Chamber of Commerce stirred up influential people on the question of methods for testing laws before enactment, as materials and devices are tested in a factory. Fred C. Kelly, a newspaper man, reports the results in the February number of *Current History*

("Government by Test-Tube"). In 1933, Kansas established her now famous Legislative Council. It consists of ten senators, fifteen representatives, and the presiding officers of both houses, so chosen as to represent various sections of the state as well as the major political parties. The Council is assisted by a permanent staff of independent research experts who gather all that has been learned about a matter, in this country and elsewhere. Hit-or-miss methods are thus eliminated from the legislative process. Since the research staff is at work continuously and the Council meets quarterly to study reports and hold hearings, much time is saved when the legislature meets, notably in committee hearings. The Council furnishes legislators, newspapers, and interested citizens with summaries of the facts about impending legislation, but it does not recommend legislation. This presentation of facts—experiences elsewhere and technical information—has proven to be disadvantageous to lobbyists, as well as helpful in educating public opinion and in taking the guesswork out of law-making. Six states have copied the Kansas scheme, and others are considering it.

The topic of the month in the *Congressional Digest* for January is "Will Profit Sharing Increase Employment?" The presentation includes the history and background of the movement, various schemes in use today, the attitude of business toward profit sharing, and a pro and con discussion of the question.

The December, January, and February issues of *The Atlantic Monthly* present a series of articles on housing, somewhat in the nature of a debate. In the two earlier numbers, a newspaper man, Charles Stevenson, presents the case for "Housing—A National Disgrace." In the February number, the Administrator of the United States Housing Authority, Nathan Straus, takes exception to the portions of Mr. Stevenson's articles which criticize the government's housing program ("Housing—A National Achievement"). Both agree that the familiar methods of building construction are too costly, that abuses in the building trades help make costs extortionate, and that racketeering is too common. The discussion of the problem, the social effects of bad housing, the economic effects of mass-production methods in housing, and similar matters of interest to students of social problems make these articles valuable to high school classes.

A never failing source of interest is the story of the Norse visits to North America long before Columbus. A Norwegian discovered Greenland in the days of Alfred the Great and a century later, in 986 A.D., several hundred colonists established the first European colony in Greenland, under Erik the Red. It grew to 9,000 persons, and was organized as a republic. Before Columbus sailed, the settlements had disappeared, and scholars have since been mysti-

fied about it. In the January number of *Natural History*, the celebrated explorer, Vilhjalmur Stefansson, tells the story of the settlements, describes the life in Greenland and the relations with Europe, and reviews the evidence on the question of the final disappearance. This article on "The Disappearance of the Greenland Colony" will be found both enjoyable and profitable by students of history.

In the same issue of *Natural History*, Willy Ley, in "The Story of Glass," reviews the history of glass, showing the problems and the mysteries of the art, and the increasing importance of glass in our day. He suggests that in the twentieth century glass will rank with metal as the characteristic material of the time. Although historical in treatment, the author gives considerable space to modern glass making, the uses of glass, and the possibilities for the use of glass which science has been disclosing.

THE TROUBLED INTERNATIONAL SCENE

The stream of articles interpreting current affairs has grown, if anything, since the Munich accord. In *Foreign Affairs* for January, Hamilton Fish Armstrong presents a very long, leading article on "Armistice at Munich" which sketches its background, the events leading to it, and the consequences. In fact, most of the issue deals with questions raised by the Munich agreement: "Czechs and Germans After Munich" (by Elizabeth Wiske-mann), "A Turning Point in History" (by Arnold J. Toynbee), "The New Balance of Power in the Levant" (by Tomaso Sillani), and the two articles on "The New Balance of Power in the Levant," the one by Harold Nicolson on "What France Means to England" and the other by André Géraud (Pertinax) on "What England Means to France."

Several articles in the January issue of *Events* continue the discussion of previous months. *The Living Age* for January, under "Munich Drama: Act II," describes the consequences of Munich in Rumania, Poland, and Slovakia. The January *Forum*, under "Munich: Two British Views," offers a pro and con discussion. Wickham Steed, former editor of the *London Times*, condemns the accord ("The Great Betrayal"), while Cecil Harmsworth, active both in newspaper work and in politics, contends that a real contribution to peace was made at Munich ("Toward International Amity"). As a complement and background to all of these, is Vera M. Dean's "Diplomatic Background of Munich Accord," in the January 1 number of *Foreign Policy Reports*.

Under the heading, "Realistic Europe," *The Atlantic Monthly* for January gives three articles on the European situation. Graham Hutton, a lawyer and editor of the *London Economist*, condemns the Tory wing now in power as essentially selfish and willing to sacrifice Britain for its own economic interests

("Where Now Is Britain?"). Fritz Berber, a Sudeten German favorable to nazism, blames Germany's troubles on the Treaty of Versailles and sees Hitler as the restorer of an independent Germany, able once more to deal on equal terms with other great powers ("Germany's Purpose"). Pertinax, the French critic of political affairs, contrasts the democracies with the dictator countries and fears that the former will succumb unless they can build up a comparable military establishment ("The Safety of France"). Determination seems to imbue Herr Berber's remarks, while a pessimistic note echoes in the voices of the other two.

Southern and Eastern Europe have not been neglected by the commentators. Peter F. Drucker, in "Can Germany Win the Balkans?" (*Harper's Magazine* for January), examines the nazi chances for setting up an empire in the southeast. In the December number of *Asia* he considered the Balkans from the British viewpoint (see this department, January issue of *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*). Whoever seeks to penetrate the Balkans, he believes, must win the peasants. For the peasant is the key to the Balkans and unless he is nazified, Germany will fail there. The peasants are oppressed, unhappy, and ripe for rebellion. Nazi ideas appeal to the peasant, for they seem to chime with his own democratic ideals, and the peasant is an inveterate democrat. At present, despite racial, social, national, and other obstacles, Germany seems likely to succeed in dominating the Balkans.

Another former German newspaper man, René Kraus of Vienna, reminds the West that the Moslems are once more astir and seeking political expansion ("Mohammed Stages a Comeback," in the February issue of *Current History*). Mohammedanism is spreading uninterruptedly among the colored races of the East, while Japan, friendly to Islam, is seeking to use this growing power. The fertility of the Moslems, moreover, is such that, with the advantages of modern medical science, their mere increase in numbers is a threat to the dwindling populations of the West. "White nations show a frightening recession of their birth rate, but Moslems multiply like rabbits." Moreover they have an unshakable religious unity, and the Islamic countries possess immense wealth in oil, cotton, and other essential raw materials. Mr. Kraus's survey is accompanied by a large map of "The Moslem World," showing the distribution of Mohammedans in the Eastern Hemisphere.

Harold Callender, foreign correspondent of the *New York Times*, journeyed through Germany in the late fall of 1938 and then sent from Paris a series of articles on conditions and sentiment in Germany. These articles are summarized in *Current History* for February, under the title, "The Germans in Germany." Mr. Callender concludes that many Ger-

mans, perhaps most of them, look with disfavor upon the nazi policy of suppression of minorities, whether of race or of opinion. The people are not contented, they dislike the food restrictions, and are fearful of Hitler's foreign policy, feeling unable to sustain a war. But, in the face of the nazi military and espionage machines, opposition on the part of the people can hardly come into the open. It is interesting to note that a commentator on Italy, Albert Viton ("Italy Under Hitler," in the December 31 issue of *The Nation*), reaches the conclusion that Italy is now only a colony of Germany.

Eliot Janeway is a student of affairs whose regular department, "Trade Currents," is a familiar feature of *Asia*. In *Harper's Magazine* for January, Mr. Janeway supplies the leading article, a striking one, on "England Moves Toward Fascism." Mr. Janeway argues that England is taking the economic road to fascism, just as Germany took the political. The economic supremacy in world trade which Britain maintained, in the nineteenth century is now gone. In its place, that country is attempting to build prosperity upon armament construction, a sure bid for fascism. Vast armament construction makes government the principal customer of business. Heavy industry, unequal to the pressing demand for such construction, is likely to be financed by the government in order to expand rapidly enough to meet the specialized demands of armament. From creditor, it is an easy step to director and part owner of industry—to fascism. Unhappily, armament construction is economically sterile and adds nothing to a nation's wealth. It is "the perfection of the economics of scarcity." For its success, private capital must be kept at home, imports must be restricted in order to preserve the nation's resources, ersatz goods must be devised to replace what is lacking at home, and other similar steps must be taken which Germany has made familiar to the world. If economic fascism does come to Great Britain, can political fascism be avoided? Can the present holders of power keep it or must they inevitably go under "before the gangsters and fanatics" that fascism breeds? For, "whatever the best people may think and say . . . fascism is not an affair of the best people."

Nazi repercussions in the Western Hemisphere are receiving due attention. Dr. S. K. Padover, an Austrian reared in America, describes in the January *Forum* "Unser Amerika," The Nazi Program for the United States." He studied German pamphlets, books, and speeches and found an extensive propaganda actively at work to nazify the United States. Unbelievable claims are being put forth to show that this country rightfully belongs to Germany, not only in culture, in social heritage, but in origins and in blood. A summary of Dr. Padover's article ap-

peared in the *Readers Digest* for January.

Henry C. Wolfe, for twenty years an eye witness of European affairs, declares there is no danger of Germany really getting a foothold in the Western Hemisphere ("Before Hitler Crosses the Atlantic," in the February issue of *Harper's Magazine*). Too much must be done in Europe before the nazi threat to Latin America can become serious. The ocean precludes the sending of military forces.

American defense against any Eastern threat is discussed by Eliot Janeway and Major George Fielding Eliot. In *Asia* for last November a supplement was included that deals with the Pacific policies of the various powers, except the United States (see this department in the December issue of *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*). In the February number of *Asia*, under the title, "The Americas and the New Pacific," Mr. Janeway examines the American Pacific problem. It is, he believes, a two-fold one, military and economic. The United States is weakened by her dependence upon Eastern rubber and tin. Japan is in a position to cut off our line of supplies for such commodities. It seems wise to develop the rubber and tin resources of South America, therefore, and in other ways establish the economic independence of the Western Hemisphere.

To Mr. Janeway the value of the Philippines to the United States seems questionable. If we were to become embroiled in the East, he entertains some doubts about Britain's readiness to act with us, in case of need, and suggests that the British Navy may be found on the side of the enemy. In any case, there are tremendous difficulties facing this country in any attempt by it to manage affairs on the other side of the Pacific. It seems wiser to him that we withdraw from Far Eastern entanglements, economic or otherwise, and concentrate on a continent-wide program for cementing the relations between North and South America, we supplying technical knowledge and capital, and they raw materials.

Major Eliot, in the February 1 issue of *The New Republic*, examines the question, "Shall We Fortify Guam?" He quotes with approval the opinion of the noted British naval critic, Hector C. Bywater, that Guam is "'unique, commanding, and of supreme importance—the veritable key of the Pacific.'" If we do not intend to maintain Philippine independence or safeguard Dutch and British interests in the Pacific, then Guam need not be fortified. But if the Japanese naval urge to expand southward, an urge as powerful as the urge of her military men to expand on the Asiatic continent, is a matter of concern to us, then Guam is invaluable as an air and naval base. Wherein its value lies and the hazards of protecting the island are reviewed by Major Eliot. Not the least of those hazards is Japan's fear if we undertake to

fortify the island, a fear that might precipitate war. "Is the risk of war now to be taken rather than risk a war with a more powerful Japan later on? Can we make a reasonably permanent peace with Japan which will enable us both to live side by side in the Pacific without clashing? Or must we accept the lesser risk to avoid being confronted with the greater?"

MEETINGS

On March 17-18 the annual Junior High School Conference will be held in New York City at New York University.

On March 22-25 the annual Schoolmen's Week and Meeting of the Southeastern Convention District of Pennsylvania will be held in Philadelphia at the University of Pennsylvania. At many of the sessions, phases of the problem of educating older youth will be discussed. In this connection the National Education Association will hold a conference on "The National Aspects of Education," centering thought on three topics: "Federal Aid for Public Schools"; "Work of the Educational Policies Commission"; and "Professional Relations, Attitudes, and Techniques." The social studies conferences will be devoted in part to the discussion of new plans for a curriculum for non-college—the so-called non-academic—secondary school pupils, a question now of great concern since the state law of Pennsylvania requires continuance in school until the age of eighteen, except for those who graduate from high school at an earlier age.

On April 10-14, the Association for Childhood Education will meet at Atlanta, Georgia, for its forty-sixth annual convention. The theme of the program will be, "Education in School and Community." In addition to the general and business sessions there will be study classes for specific problems, a commercial exhibit, and various social events. The Associa-

tion now numbers 30,000 persons and has more than 350 branches in this country, Puerto Rico, Canada, and Japan.

The Social Studies Round Table at the Pennsylvania State Education Association Convention meeting at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, December 28, 1939, was in the form of reports from district organizations in the state. All eight convention districts were represented and it was voted to form a State Council for the Social Studies to act as a clearing house of ideas and a coordinating agency for social studies teachers of the state. The following officers were elected for the year: President, Mr. Howard R. Drake, Lansdowne High School, Lansdowne, Pennsylvania; Vice-president, Mr. Eric Garing, Aliquippa High School, Aliquippa, Pennsylvania; Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Sarah Beck, Lock Haven High School, Lock Haven, Pennsylvania. The newly elected president appointed an executive committee representing the eight convention districts to meet in the spring to plan a permanent organization and a definite program.

MOTION PICTURES

Under the direction of Professor James T. Shotwell, a history of America is being prepared in films. In part, the pictures are designed for use at the New York World's Fair and the International Golden Gate Exposition. Professor Shotwell has outlined fifteen episodes, from early man to "America Faces the Future." The series will show that "the history of America does not lie apart from that of the long story of human life in Asia and Europe. It is a chapter of the history of mankind set in magnificent dimensions, but moving parallel with what man has done the world over." The films are to be distributed by Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America, 28 West 44th Street, New York City.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by J. IRA KREIDER

Abington High School, Abington, Pennsylvania

America and the Strife of Europe. By J. Fred Rippy. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1938. Pp. xi, 264. \$2.00.

Professor Rippy has attempted to analyze the effect that the conflicts of Europe have had on America's foreign policy, and to trace the difficulties produced in the United States by the clash of isolationism with democratic enthusiasm and economic interest.

Isolationism, which had found frequent expression for at least twenty years before it was dramatized in Washington's Farewell Address, has been woven into the basic pattern of American policy. Yet from Washington to Franklin D. Roosevelt, various ideals have come into conflict with isolationism; foremost among these have been enthusiasm for democracy and sympathy for the struggles of other peoples for fuller opportunities and larger political rights. "Devotion

to democracy and devotion to the maxim of isolation have frequently tended to become conflicting sentiments." And when democratic fervor is reinforced by the profit motive, "the policy of isolation is likely to be abandoned." Herein, the author points out, lies the basic contradiction in American foreign policy.

Emphasizing the fact that "the people of the United States are capable of being deeply touched by ideas as well as by interests," Professor Rippy draws together the historical threads of America's devotion to isolationism, to the "democratic experiment," to pacifism, and to expansionism, and shows how they have all—on occasion—been put into practice. The strife of Europe has often given America opportunity and occasion to expand; it has "made it possible for the United States in most respects to assert its will, so far as European governments were concerned, in the affairs of the Western hemisphere." And yet, Professor Rippy writes, this country has tried again and again to stop foreign wars and to prevent them. Theodore Roosevelt, Bryan, and Wilson were "messiahs" who interested themselves in the peace of Europe. There are new "messiahs" today.

The last chapter skims over the latest developments in American policy, the efforts at neutrality legislation, and the significance of the President's quarantine address at Chicago and of Secretary Hull's denunciation of rigid isolation in June, 1938. "Men of ideals follow messiahs," Professor Rippy concludes, "Men with vested interests follow them too, especially when interests and ideals coincide. This is the plight of the isolationists."

The ideas presented in this volume are by no means new. It is rather their redirection and reinterpretation—the refocusing of known facts with the strife of Europe as the unifying theme—that makes the book a stimulating and thoughtful discussion of America's foreign policy. And yet it must be admitted that the author's analysis of the years up to the World War is made with far greater skill and conviction than that of the later period. This reviewer at least would have welcomed more discussion of America's attitude towards the collapse of the League, towards Ethiopia, Spain, and China. One might ask what are the lessons to be drawn from this analysis. Unfortunately, there are none. The author himself does not know, and has no suggestion to make beyond the fact that "the history of our own enthusiasms, shortcomings, and aggressions recommends tolerance toward other nations."

A good critical bibliography follows the text.

WILLIAM DIAMOND

Johns Hopkins University
Baltimore, Maryland

New York: An American City, 1783-1803. (Studies in History, Economics and Public Law, No. 442.) By Sidney Pomerantz. New York: Columbia University Press, 1938. Pp. 531. Illustrated. \$5.00.

That the successful competition of the Revolutionary War influenced the development of the city of New York, is the theme of this book written by Dr. Pomerantz.

There is nothing confusing about Dr. Pomerantz's thesis. It is his painstaking thoroughness that arouses one's admiration. He happens to believe that what may be called urban conditions of living had more influence in our early career than is generally supposed. He gives his attention in particular to New York. The growth of the early cities meant much in colonial history. They formed patterns which influenced their development.

New York between 1783-1803 grew slowly. It was faced with problems that are recognizably city problems today. Sin, sanitation, traffic, politics, street paving, religious life and development, social services, and economic advancement all appeared at an early stage. The basic issues in New York today are quite similar to those in the same city two-hundred years ago. One feels in reading these pages the rumble of domestic, economic, and cultural development. The period of change also refashioned the machinery of municipal government to meet the needs of an ever-growing community. New York and its citizens became leading factors in determining the political destinies of states and nations.

The study of urban life as a force in the rise of American civilization has in recent years been recognized. The author of this work has done a sound, thorough job. The bibliography, research work, and source materials reveal an enviable scholarship. The reviewer of this book feels that it is bound to have an influence on future studies in urban history.

ERWIN ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School
Mount Vernon, New York

Roads to a New America. By David Cushman Coyle. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1938. Pp. 390. \$2.75.

In this, his first full length book, Mr. Coyle gives a "Middle-of-the-road" viewpoint of the solution to America's economic problems. He points out that good land has become scarce; soil is being wasted; mineral deposits are being used up and forests destroyed. Yet, with a nation-wide system of planning, this can be saved or replenished. Mr. Coyle insists this can be done by democratic methods and without resorting to any of the "isms." The decreased birth-rate of the nation is not a cause for worry, but a warning, for "we had better look to our people—

their health, morale, and training." We need to spend more money on public health. The schools must be helped by federal subsidies without being endangered by federal control.

Mr. Coyle states that some of the maladjustments of our present century have been brought about by using science and inventions without the proper precautions, and that "the only way to avoid being badly burned seems to be to improve greatly the distribution of our natural income, so that the products of technology will be widely scattered among the people." Thrift, he says, merely adds more capital for investment. As there are not enough attractive opportunities for those seeking to invest their money, we have periodic business depressions, which are becoming ever more serious. The cure for these recurring business cycles is "for the government to put a roof over the economic system and provide a guaranteed climate in which business will not be subject to wind and rain, or heat or cold."

Some of the "Roads to a New America" are permanent federal expenditures for financial security against old age, lower prices without decreased wages, a long range plan of public works, and redistributing the national income so that money will be "pumped out of a part of the economic system where it is stagnant or slow moving, and into a part where it will move more swiftly." These and other "roads" that he advocates will be paid for through a revised system of taxation, with the heaviest burden on corporations and large incomes; and by more efficient management of governmental affairs, especially by eliminating overlapping governmental agencies.

The book is exceptionally readable and provocative. The author has produced a very vivid picture of existing conditions; he has been skillful in choosing illustrations, though, sometimes he is rather vague in his remedies. The reader may not agree with Mr. Coyle's philosophy, but he will find his time well spent.

GEORGE F. GRAY

Junior High School
Port Arthur, Texas

The Folly of Installment Buying. By Roger Babson.
New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company,
1938. Pp. ix, 248. \$1.50.

Here is a short book which contains a tremendous amount of information of practical value. It would be almost ideal to use this as a supplementary book in the subject of economics since the information presented is all dealing with a problem that is almost certain to face every student. The advice of Mr. Babson is not based upon anything but common-sense and the common-sense interpretation of sales figures

on installment buying in the United States. The conclusions which he draws are sound and warrantable.

The style of the book is non-technical and popular. The advice which he gives on the ways to cut down installment buying by substituting installment saving instead of spending income before it is earned will probably not prove popular but should at least make future citizens aware of what lies behind the well-known phrase, "a trifling service charge will be added."

The teacher who wishes to relate the study of economics to life situations will find this book an excellent starting point. It should be the means of provoking discussions and make it possible to bring out important points. On the whole the book is well worth while and should be an important contribution to school libraries.

DANIEL ROSENBERGER

Phineas Davis Junior High School
York, Pennsylvania

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

Story of Our Land and People. By Glenn W. Moon.
New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1938.
Pp. xi, 525. \$1.92.

For many years students and teachers have contended (with considerable justification) that history was unappealing because it was presented through the medium of dull and dusty textbooks. This contention still may be held in connection with certain new materials, but it can no longer be used as a blanket condemnation for them all. Such books as *Story of Our Land and People* are merely additional proof to be added to an already large body of evidence that refutes this oft repeated argument.

The author is a high school man who evidently recognizes that we cannot arouse very much enthusiasm for the social studies if we persist in trying to intellectualize the approach to these studies. Mr. Moon has tried, and with no little success, to rescue United States history from the specialist's heavy touch, and has proceeded to give this area of history a much needed element of romance, color, adventure, and glamour. His publisher has helped considerably too in this effort, with the result that a most attractive volume is presented.

Using a type of true unit organization based upon "how and why" we have become what we are today, Mr. Moon has literally "told the story" of America's birth and growth to adolescence and maturity. Without sacrificing accuracy the narrator has succeeded in subordinating the mechanics of narration to the theme itself, and has presented the theme in language that youth can understand. Likewise, he has tended to de-emphasize "movements" in our history and flavored the account of the rise and development of America with enough biography to

convince the reader that our civilization has been built by real honest-to-goodness people.

Yet, in spite of such highly desirable features as have been mentioned, the text reveals certain sins of omission and commission. For example, faced with a limit of 525 pages, the author saw fit to take 210 pages to carry his reader through the War of 1812. Similarly, in spite of the present day importance of the Reconstruction period after the Civil War, the writer devotes only two pages to this era and at the same time fails to emphasize its significance. Still, again, in a day when much of our present condition is dependent upon this country's international contacts and post world war problems, the place of the United States in world affairs the past two decades receives slight mention. Such inadequate treatment of what the reviewer believes are exceedingly important areas of our history does not mean that the text is not a good one. It merely means that in the eyes of this particular reviewer the book might have been a more effective piece of instructional material had it given more space and attention to the areas mentioned.

The text is not labelled for use in any particular segment of the school system, but it would appear to have its greatest appeal on the junior high school level.

F. MELVYN LAWSON

Sacramento Senior High School
Sacramento, California

Our Government Today. By William Backus Guitteau and Edna McCaull Bohlman. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1938. Pp. 662. \$1.80.

In this book the authors have, in fourteen chapters, summarized the background of American government, shown the foundations of our government, and clearly explained how it operates today. It includes many pictures, facsimiles, diagrams, and maps which add greatly to the interest of the book. A short preview at the beginning of each unit also helps to make what is often considered an uninteresting subject much more readable. At the end of each chapter, there is a list of General References, Questions on the Text, Exercises and Activities.

The authors have necessarily gone into detail in order to do justice to their subject. This, of course, makes the book rather long to be studied by some high school classes. However, it would make an excellent reference book for any group interested in studying government and could be used as a text by most high school classes.

The material is up-to-date and much more practical than many books on this subject inasmuch as it associates a great deal of the information with the every day life of the reader. The questions and

exercises at the end of each chapter are excellent in most cases for they are intended to stimulate thinking rather than mere memorization. They also make it necessary for the student to be well informed about the affairs of his own community and incidentally help him to become a much better citizen for, as the authors state in the Introduction: "Government cannot be understood by merely studying its form and framework; unless we know what the machinery is like we cannot understand how it operates. So the study of government is the first step toward intelligent citizenship; and active participation in helping to solve its problems is the next step toward effective citizenship. The future of our democracy depends upon how well the coming generation is informed concerning government and its problems, and upon the willingness of that generation to participate in helping to solve them."

BETTY MCCORD

Darby High School
Darby, Pennsylvania

The United States at Work. By Maude Cottingham Martin and Clyde Edward Cooper. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1938. Pp. xiv, 656. Illustrated. \$1.96.

The editor's announcement, "A Geography" tempts the remark—"What a Geography!" What a complete, satisfying, thorough piece of work! The volume is mechanically sound too: easy to handle, not too heavy to carry, well organized and of convenient size with clear legible print. There are well chosen illustrations appearing on almost every page. The maps, often colored or shaded, bear convincing, eye-catching explanations. The world map in harmonious colors showing the clipper ship route, plainly marked, including mileage from station to station, will serve as an example. Topographical maps show cross sections, a very helpful device. The language of the narrative is suited to junior high school pupils. There are short sentences and picturesque expressions which appeal to the imagination.

As for the geography of *The United States at Work*, all types are included: political, physical, mathematical, industrial and economic, both at home and abroad. A thread of narrative links the facts because in the six units all sections of United States are joined by reason of their economic progress and their potential development. The attack is personal and consequently impressive, since the information given concerns the happiness and welfare of man as dependent on his work. Mention of the cultural, religious, aesthetic, and educational progress of their people might have been a real addition. Nevertheless, this book will appeal to the boy and girl who is at the age to understand and appreciate his country and to dream about and perhaps plan his own

future. Such knowledge and interest will combat much of the pernicious propaganda rife today.

The scope of information and the volume of material of this text are so truly amazing that one is tempted to recommend it for seventh *and* eighth grades rather than for seventh *or* eighth grades as the editor suggests.

It remains for us to mention the indispensable aids to the teacher who is engaged in an activities program. This will be found under "Some Things to Do," which are sensible, workable and well planned. The arrangement of the reference list is particularly effective. In short, any school system which finds itself confined to the use of only one text by reason of a depression budget would be wise to select this one.

LOUISE SIGMUND

Girard College

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Europe Since 1914. By F. Lee Bennis. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1939. Fourth Edition. Pp. xiv, 933. \$3.75.

This is the fourth edition of a book that should have a very wide usefulness. In his preface to the first edition the author said, "This volume aims to provide the general reader and student of history with a brief, clearly-written, well-organized introduction to the significant events and changes which have occurred in Europe since 1914." That he did these things and did them very well can hardly be questioned.

The organization of the material is very simple and logical. Part One, "War and Revolution," discusses the causes and progress of the World War and the downfall of the Central Powers. Part Two, "Peace and Liquidation," deals with the Peace Conference, the League, reparations and war debts, disarmament, and the search for national security. Part Three, "National Reconstruction," traces the various nationalistic movements in all European countries during the '20's and '30's, and Part Four, "The Revolt in the East," follows the developments in the Near and Far East and the relations of the West to these movements.

But the happenings of the last two years have been so ominously important that the author has deemed it necessary in this fourth edition to add a complete new part which he calls "Since 1936." In this section, in addition to bringing the history of European countries down to date, particular attention is given to the seizure of Austria, the Spanish war and its influence, the dismembering of Czecho-Slovakia, the progress of Germany in its "Drang nach Osten," and the Japanese invasion of China.

This book is not only a superior textbook for the use of the college student and general reader, but it should be wisely used by teachers of modern history in secondary schools on their student's reference

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H. EMORY WAGNER

Girard College
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

BOOK NOTES

The Anatomy of Revolution. By Crane Brinton. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, Inc., 1938. Pp. 326. \$3.00.

This book is an unusual and much praised study of the phenomenon of revolution, attractively written and challenging to thoughtful high school students. Professor Brinton attempts a scientific approach in analyzing the anatomy of revolutions, seeking the factors in old regimes which lead to revolt, laying bare the traits of the first stages of revolution, describing the types of revolutionists, and searching out the reasons for the later drift from moderation to extremism and excesses. He concludes with an evaluation of the accomplishments of revolution. This study confines itself to four revolutions: the English Revolution, the American Revolution, the French Revolution, and the Russian.

England: A History of British Progress from the Early Ages to the Present Age. By Cyril E. Robinson. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1938. Maps, plans, and plates. Pp. xiv, 892. \$4.50.

This American edition of the well-known English work which first appeared in 1928 will serve as a welcome volume beside the usual American interpretations of British history found on the school or library reference shelf. The emphasis is laid upon political history. The style is attractive and the language within the range of youth. Although only thirty-five pages cover the period from 1919-1937, about 250 pages or approximately thirty per cent of the space is devoted to the period since Waterloo and a little more than half the space is given to the period from 1485 to 1815. A helpful, detailed, chronological summary of English history, from 1000 B.C. to November, 1937, covering nearly eighty pages, is appended. In the appendix also is a useful summary of the British constitution and government, the monarchs since 1066, and the prime ministers since 1721. A rather full bibliography is given, of literary and historical works, including sources, with indications of their usefulness for young readers and for older students.

M. W.

A History of Foreign Relations. By Louis Martin Sears. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Com-

pany, 1938. Third edition, revised and enlarged. Pp. xiv, 744. \$3.50.

Professor Sears' well-known college textbook has been brought down into the 1930's, almost to the Munich accord—an event which already requires the re-writing of the later chapters. It may be used as a reference book for older high school youth.

Ownership and Regulation of Public Utilities. Edited by G. Lloyd Wilson. January 1939 issue of *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Pp. xii, 295. \$2.00.

The problems of power utilities and transportation utilities, the case for public and private ownership, operation, and control, and examples of government ownership and operation in other countries, are presented from different standpoints. This is a valuable reference work for students of social problems.

The Log of Christopher Columbus' First Voyage to America. By John O'Hara Cosgrove. New York: William R. Scott, Inc., 1938. Pp. 86. Illustrated. \$2.00.

The actual log of Christopher Columbus as copied by Bartholomew Las Casas is presented in a most attractive format. The reader is given authentic source material in such a way that he shares the enchantment and the drama of a small ship on a long ocean journey, making its way into the unknown. A large part of each page is given to drawings of scenes aboard ship, riggings, and charts which are decorative and accurate representations. Books of this kind are a great aid in creating an interest in books and reading among young people.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

What Now, America? By Stephen and Joan Raushenbush. December 15, 1938 issue of *Social Action*. Council for Social Action of the Congregational and Christian Churches, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York City. 10 cents.

A study of the various lines of action which the United States may choose in meeting the problem of peace and war in international relations.

From Versailles to Munich, 1918-1938. By Bernadotte E. Schmitt. Public Policy Pamphlet, No. 28, 1938. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois. 25 cents.

Reviews the events since the World War and the forces at work which have conspired to undo the settlements made twenty years ago. A valuable sketch of the historical background of the Munich agreement.

The New Deal in Action, 1933-1938. By Arthur Meier Schlesinger. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1939. 60 cents.

A review of the trend of national policy during the first administration of President Franklin D. Roosevelt. A bibliography is appended.

Leisure-Time Guidance and Delinquency. By Victor H. Evjen. 1938. The National Council on Education for Character and Citizenship, 5732 Harper Avenue, Chicago, Illinois. 20 cents.

Discusses the causes of delinquency and suggests ways in which guidance in leisure can aid in solving the problems of delinquency.

A History of Blair County Pennsylvania. A Project by the Student and Teachers of the Social Studies Department of the Altoona Senior High School. Pennsylvania: Altoona Senior High School, 1938. Pp. viii, 122. Paper covers.

A study in local history.

A History of Third Parties in Pennsylvania, 1840-1860. By Sister M. Theophane Geary. Washington, D.C.: The Catholic University of America, 1938. Pp. xi, 274. Paper covers.

A doctoral thesis.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

American Labor. By Herbert Harris. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1938. Pp. vi, 459. Illustrated. \$3.75.

A history of American labor, from colonial times to the present.

Conflicting Theories of Education. By I. L. Kandel. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938. Pp. xiii, 177. \$1.50.

An interpretation of education in the present social and political setting.

Europe Since 1914. By F. Lee Bennis. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1939. Fourth edition. Pp. xiv, 933. Illustrated. \$3.75.

A college textbook on recent history brought up-to-date.

The Excursion as a Teaching Technique. Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education No. 761. By Henry C. Atyeo. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. Pp. vi, 225. \$2.35.

A study of school excursion techniques.

Health Insurance with Medical Care: The British Experience. By Douglas W. Orr and Jean Walk-

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er Orr. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938. Pp. xvi, 271. \$2.50.

A survey of the practical working of national health insurance.

Introducing the Past. By Rachel Reed. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1939. Pp. xiv, 651. \$1.68.

A textbook for a first course in history for students entering the senior high school.

Medicine in Modern Society. By David Riesman. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1938. Pp. 226. \$2.50.

Deals with the history of medicine and subjects which interest the medical profession and the laity.

Plato Today. By R. H. S. Crossman. New York: Oxford University Press, 1939. Pp. vii, 311. \$2.50.

A study of Plato in the light of modern social and political problems.

The Romance of Human Progress. By Arthur Stanley Riggs. New York: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1938. Pp. xix, 405. Illustrated. \$5.00.

An outline of cultural history as revealed by archeology.

Scaling the Centuries. By Erwin J. Urch. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1939. Pp. xxi, 838, xiv. Illustrated. \$2.12.

A textbook for a one-year course in world history in the senior high school.

Social Adjustment in Methodism. Teachers College, Columbia University Contributions to Education, No. 765. By John Paul Williams. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. ix, 131. \$1.60.

A study of the ability of the Methodist Episcopal Church to adapt itself to the needs of a changing society.

Tomorrow in the Making. Edited by John M. Andrews and Carl A. Marsden. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939. Pp. xv, 471. \$3.00.

A symposium on modern American problems by twenty-six leaders of American thought.

Your Community: Its Provision for Health, Education, Safety, and Welfare. By Joanna C. Colcord. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1939. Pp. 249. 85 cents.

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